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TEACHING LISTENING

Н.А. Суттибаев, Б.Б. Тулеубаева

Әл-Фараби ат. ҚазҰУ, Алматы, Қазақстан

nurbahyt74@mail.ru

The teaching of listening has attracted a greater level of interest in recent years than it did in the past. Now, university entrance exams, exit exams, and other examinations often include a listening component, acknowledging that listening skills are a core component of second-language proficiency, and also reflecting the assumption that if listening isn't tested, teachers won't teach it.

Since listening can provide much of the input and data that learners receive in language learning, an important question is: How can attention to the language the listener hears facilitate second language learning? This raises the issue of the role “noticing” and conscious awareness of language form play, and how noticing can be part of the process by which learners can incorporate new word forms and structures into their developing communicative competence.

Our goal is to make an overview of what applied linguistics research and theory says about the nature of listening skills, and then to explore what the implications are for classroom teaching.

Listening as comprehension is the traditional way of thinking about the nature of listening. Indeed, in most methodology manuals listening and listening comprehension are synonymous. This view of listening is based on the assumption that the main function of listening in second language learning is to facilitate understanding of spoken discourse.

Understanding spoken discourse: bottom-up and top-down processing

Two different kinds of processes are involved in understanding spoken discourse. These are often referred to as bottom-up and top-down processing.

Bottom-up processing

Bottom-up processing refers to using the incoming input as the basis for understanding the message. Comprehension begins with the received data that is analyzed as successive levels of organization – sounds, words, clauses, sentences, texts – until meaning is derived. Comprehension is viewed as a process of decoding.

The listener's lexical and grammatical competence in a language provides the basis for bottom-up processing. The input is scanned for familiar words, and grammatical knowledge is used to work out the relationship between elements of sentences.

We can illustrate this with an example. Imagine I said the following to you:

“The guy I sat next to on the bus this morning on the way to work was telling me he runs a Thai restaurant in Chinatown. Apparently, it's very popular at the moment.”

To understand this utterance using bottom-up processing, we have to mentally break it down into its components. This is referred to as “chunking.” Here are the chunks that guide us to the underlying core meaning of the utterances:

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J the guy

J I sat next to on the bus

J this morning

J was telling me

J he runs a Thai restaurant in Chinatown

J apparently it's very popular

J at the moment

The chunks help us identify the underlying propositions the utterances express, namely:

J I was on the bus.

J There was a guy next to me.
J We talked.
J He said he runs a Thai restaurant.
J It's in Chinatown.
J It's very popular now.

It is these units of meaning that we remember, and not the form in which we initially heard them. Our knowledge of grammar helps us find the appropriate chunks, and the speaker also assists us in this process through intonation and pausing.

Teaching bottom-up processing

Learners need a large vocabulary and a good working knowledge of sentence structure to process texts bottom-up. Exercises that develop bottom-up processing help the learner to do such things as the following:

J Retain input while it is being processed
J Recognize word and clause divisions
J Recognize key words
J Recognize key transitions in a discourse
J Recognize grammatical relationships between key elements in sentences

Top-down processing

Top-down processing, on the other hand, refers to the use of background knowledge in understanding the meaning of a message. Whereas bottom-up processing goes from language to meaning, top-down processing goes from meaning to language. The background knowledge required for top-down processing may be previous knowledge about the topic of discourse, situational or contextual knowledge, or knowledge in the form of “schemata” or “scripts” – plans about the overall structure of events and the relationships between them. For example, consider how we might respond to the following utterance:

“I heard on the news there was a big earthquake in China last night.”

On recognizing the word earthquake, we generate a set of questions for which we want answers:

J Where exactly was the earthquake?
J How big was it?
J Did it cause a lot of damage?
J Were many people killed or injured?
J What rescue efforts are under way?

The following activities develop top-down listening skills:

J Students generate a set of questions they expect to hear about a topic, then listen to see if they are answered.
J Students generate a list of things they already know about a topic and things they would like to learn more about, then listen and compare.

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J Students read one speaker's part in a conversation, predict the other speaker's part, then listen and compare.
J Students read a list of key points to be covered in a talk, then listen to see which ones are mentioned.
J Students listen to part of a story, complete the story ending, then listen and compare endings.
J Students read news headlines, guess what happened, then listen to the full news items and compare.

Combining bottom-up and top-down listening in a listening lesson

In real-world listening, both bottom-up and top-down processing generally occur together. The extent to which one or the other dominates depends on the listener's familiarity with the topic

and content of a text, the density of information in a text, the text type, and the listener's purpose in listening. For example, an experienced cook might listen to a radio chef describing a recipe for cooking chicken to compare the chef's recipe with her own. She has a precise schema to apply to the task and listens to register similarities and differences. She makes more use of top-down processing. However, a novice cook listening to the same program might listen with much greater attention trying to identify each step in order to write down the recipe. Here, far more bottom-up processing is needed. A typical lesson in current teaching materials involves a three-part sequence consisting of pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening and contains activities that link bottom-up and top-down listening (Field, 1998).

The pre-listening phase prepares students for both top-down and bottom-up processing through activities involving activating prior knowledge, making predictions, and reviewing key vocabulary. The while-listening phase focuses on comprehension through exercises that require selective listening, gist listening, sequencing, etc. The post-listening phase typically involves a response to comprehension and may require students to give opinions about a topic. However, it can also include a bottom-up focus if the teacher and the listeners examine the texts or parts of the text in detail, focusing on sections that students could not follow. This may involve a microanalysis of sections of the text to enable students to recognize such features as blends, reduced words, ellipsis, and other features of spoken discourse that they were unable to process or recognize.

Teaching Listening and Speaking

These questions guide us through the understanding of any subsequent discourse that we hear, and they focus our listening on what is said in response to the questions.

We can divide the listening process into 3 stages:

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

In listening to English as a foreign language, the most important features can be defined as:

1. Coping with the sounds
2. Understanding intonation and stress
3. Coping with the redundancy and noise
4. Predicting
5. Understanding colloquial vocabulary
6. Fatigue
7. Understanding different accents
8. Using visual and environmental clues.

A teacher should produce a suitable discourse while using recordings. A preset purpose, ongoing learner response, motivation, success, simplicity, and feedback should be the things considered while preparing the task. Visual materials are useful for contextualization. We can also categorize the goals of listening as listening for enjoyment, for information, for persuasion, for perception and lastly for comprehension and problem solving.

We can also divide listening for comprehension into three stages:

1. Listening and making no response (following a written text, informal teacher talk)
2. Listening and making short responses (obeying instruction – physical movement, building models, and picture dictation) true false statements, noting specific information etc.
3. Listening and making longer responses (repetition and dictation, paraphrasing, answering questions, answering comprehension questions on the text, predictions, filling gaps, summarizing, etc).

Steps in guided metacognitive sequence in a listening lesson from Goh and Yusnita (2006)

Step 1 Pre-listening activity

In pairs, students predict the possible words and phrases that they might hear. They write down their predictions. They may write some words in their first language.

Step 2 First listen

As they are listening to the text, students underline or circle those words or phrases (including first-language equivalents) that they have predicted correctly. They also write down new information they hear.

Step 3 Pair process-based discussion

In pairs, students compare what they have understood so far and explain how they arrived at the understanding. They identify the parts that caused confusion and disagreement and make a note of the parts of the text that will require special attention in the second listen.

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Step 4 Second listen

Students listen to those parts that have caused confusion or disagreement areas and make notes of any new information they hear.

Step 5 Whole-class process-based discussions

The teacher leads a discussion to confirm comprehension before discussing with students the strategies that they reported using.

Preparing to listen

Preparation, before listening, helps learners activate schematic knowledge: of content, of interactional rules and 'scripts' of the speakers, their relationships and intentions 'to limit the range of possible utterances they are about to hear'

Brainstorming the topic, answering topic-related questions, discussion and speculation of visuals are helpful, particularly when they also provide a purpose for the listening.

Listening instruction should reflect real-life encounters with spoken language.

The 'dictogloss' technique, first described by Wajnryb (1990), has great potential for helping learners to monitor their listening as it encourages them to deal with spoken

language in ways which make sense to them as individuals (noting down key words or phrases) but also encourages comparison with peers as they share their combined understandings to construct a sensible representation of the text. The emphasis is not on accuracy but on agreement about the speaker's intended meaning.

Another useful 'while listening' task which helps students' evaluate their ability to understand key content is to get them to predict what they will probably hear using visuals, a title etc and then, while they are listening, get them to shout out 'Stop!!' when they hear something that matches their predictions. This technique can also be used to raise learners' awareness of how discourse markers, signalling, for example, new or contrasting information, are helpful when we listen as they aid prediction of what will come next. So students can shout out when they hear words like and, but, because, so. Using a variation on this technique, teachers could pause the tape after a discourse marker and get the students to predict the end of the sentence.

Remedial practice

Field recommends, 'a lengthy listening session, with several re-plays for learners to re-listen and check their answers' (Field) with the aim of remedying problems encountered while listening and developing effective listening strategies.

For these tasks, written transcripts of the conversations they have heard can be invaluable and can be used in a number of ways:

1. Gapping part of the text for students to decide on what's missing, using cues from the grammar and discourse to help them, or to match the phrases that have been cut out to the spaces

2. Reordering the transcript which has been cut up into parts which reflect its generic structure, e.g. stating the problem + giving advice + negative response to advice + alternative advice + acceptance of advice

3. Re-stating, in a coherent way, extracts which contain a lot of repetition, hesitation, fillers or false starts typical of spoken language

4. Focussing students' attention on elided forms so common in natural speech e.g.

'Been out lately?' where 'Have you...' is omitted under time pressure and also because the speaker knows the listener will understand the question without formulating it fully. These can be

underlined and students asked to decide what's missing and, once students know what they are looking for, searched for in other texts to underline themselves.

5. The same process is useful also for incomplete sentences where the speaker has changed direction mid-phrase or simply doesn't finish the phrase because he/she knows the listener has already understood the message.

6. Tapescripts are also very useful for pronunciation work – to mark stressed words, notice weak vowel sounds and locate falling pitch. Short extracts are best used for this to avoid overload.

We hope that our ideas will inspire teachers to have a go at a different approach to listening in their classrooms and have some effect on demystifying the listening process for learners. I believe with a systematic approach we can reduce some of the anxieties and frustrations students feel when they are faced with interpreting and responding to authentic spoken language and so help them become more active and effective communicators.

1. *Field J.* (1998) *Skills and Strategies: towards a new methodology for listening* ELTJ 52/2 Oxford OUP

2. *Goh C.* (1997) *Metacognitive awareness and second language listeners* ELTJ 51/4 Oxford OUP

ЖАҢА ПЕДАГОГИКАЛЫҚ ТЕХНОЛОГИЯЛАРДЫҢ ОҚУ ҮДЕРІСІНДЕ АЛАТЫН ОРНЫ ЖӘНЕ АТҚАРАТЫН ҚЫЗМЕТІ

Н.А. Суттибаев, Б.Б. Тулеубаева

эл-Фараби атындағы Қазақ Ұлттық Университеті, Алматы, Қазақстан
nurbahyt74@mail.ru

В данной статье рассматривается новая методика, которая является одним из инновационных технологий в обучении иностранному языку.

This article deals with new method which is one of the innovative technologies in learning the foreign language

Жоғары білімді дамытудың негізгі үрдісі мамандар даярлау сапасын арттыру, қарқынды ғылыми-зерттеу қызметімен ықпалдастырылған инновациялық білімді дамыту, жоғары оқу орындары зерттеулерінің әлеуметтік сала мен экономиканың қажеттіліктерімен тығыз байланысы, білім беру және жаңа технологияларды жетілдіру болып табылады.

Қазіргі заман жағдайында жоғары білім беру жүйесіне бірінші кезектегі міндет жоғары білікті мамандарды даярлауды жетілдіру болып табылатын, оны айырықша сала ретіндегі түсінуді көздейтін жаңа сапа мен қоғамдық мәртебе, икемділік пен бейімділік беру қажет. Осы міндетті жүзеге асыруда жаңа педагогикалық технологиялардың алатын орны ерекше.

Жаңа технологияның білім кеңістігіне енуі – оның төменде келтірілетін тәуелсіз аксиомалардың барлық қағидаларын қанағаттандыра білуіне тығыз байланысты болып келеді. Аксиома жүйесі аксиомалардың үш тобына тұрады. Оларға: педагогикалық технологияның еліміздің біртұтас білім беру кеңістік аясына қосылу аксиомалары; оқу үдерісінің үлгілерін жасау аксиомалары; оқу үдерісін жетілдіру аксиомалары. Өрбір аксиоматикалық топқа үш аксиомадан келеді. Қосылған аксиомаларының бірінші тобына:

- педагогикалық технологияның еліміздің білім беру кеңістігіндегі қажеттілік аксиомасы;

- педагогикалық технологияның «ұстаз» жүйесіне сәйкестік аксиомасы;

- пәндік әдістемелік жүйелерге қатысты педагогикалық технологияның универсалдылық аксиомасы.

Оқу үдерісінің үлгісін жасау аксиомаларының екінші тобына:

- оқу үдерісін параметрлеу аксиомасы. Мұндай кезде таңдап алынған параметрлер оқу үлгісін құрайды және ол өз кезегінде педагогикалық технологияның негізіне айналады.

Бірінші параметр – оқу-тәрбие үдерісінің мақсаттары мен бағыт бағдарлары жайындағы хабарларды кішігірім мақсаттар жүйесі бойынша береді «Мақсаттық бағдар».

Екінші параметр –кішігірім мақсаттарға жетудің немесе жете алмау фактілері жайындағы басқару хабарларын береді «Диагностика».