

## **CHAPTER II**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **A. What Is Listening?**

Defining the listening act is not as easy as it might seem. We have to refer to several sources if we want a definition of listening. We might find various viewpoints depending on which field we consult. The way an authority in the field of education defines listening will be different from an authority in the field of education. Norton (95) states that the different view points between a teacher and a researcher is at the use of approaches on diagnosing listening difficulties and at the use of listening instruction.

If we are to have any meaningful diagnosis or instruction, A listening skill must be separated into constituent parts. Regarding to defining listening, Norton (95) adds that a researcher compare listening and reading; do experiment with verbal rate of delivery; evaluate attention and achievement; evaluate instruction through taped listening centers; compare auditory discrimination of minority and non-minority students; and evaluate the development of critical listening skills.

Following a review of listening research and theorizing over a 50 year period, Devine (1978) credits Sra Lundsteen (1971) with the best working definition for listening (cited in Norton 96). Her definition is the result of extensive research analysis. Lundsteen presents a structural definition of listening by asking, "What are the parts of listening?" and an operational definition by asking, "What does a listener do?" Tutolo (cited in Norton 96) recommends a

similar approach for definition and instruction; he suggests a three-part definition that includes (1) acuity, (2) discrimination, and (3) comprehension – literal, interpretational, critical, and evaluational. Norton (96) says a look at how listening is defined by authorities in the field will give us the most practical definition for classroom use, and suggest approaches to the problems of diagnosing listening difficulties and developing appropriate instruction.

## **B. Listening Diagnosis**

Based on Tutolo's framework, Norton (102) says that the approach of listening skill diagnosis contains of some parts that obviously overlap as one progress from the hearing of sounds, to auditory perception, to comprehension, and, ultimately, to reaction on complex thinking levels.

### ***Hearing***

The first diagnosis is hearing ability. Hearing is also called auditory acuity. The lack of this acuity is referred to as deafness. Norton (103) writes someone may have sound sensitivity at different frequency and intensity levels from other person. In the case of child hearing development, Norton (104) adds if a child is unable to hear high or low pitched tone, he will have difficulty dealing with the consonant sounds and with blends of *s*, *l*, and *t*.

### ***Auditory Perception***

The second diagnosis is auditory perception. Auditory perception is an ability to distinguish, blend, and remember the sound of words. Regarding to auditory perception ability, Norton (105) writes someone's ability to distinguish

one sound to another sound (auditory discrimination) appears to be crucial to the area of instructional programs in reading or spelling that demand understanding of letter-sound relationship.

Norton (106) also writes someone's ability to blend sound together to form words (auditory blending) can be diagnosed by using a list of a consonant plus a vowel, vowel digraph, or diphthong and a list of initial consonant plus the remainder of the word. While for the ability to remember the sounds (auditory sequential memory), Norton (108) says that the appropriate test is asking to repeat a series of unrelated words.

### *Attention and Concentration*

The third diagnosis is attention and concentration. Norton (108) points out that a listener must be able to focus on speech sounds and select appropriate cues in order to reconstruct the speaker's message. Some students may be unable to focus on the speech sound because they are easily distracted by noises. Listening is an active process requiring participation on the part of the listener.

In the case of a live-listening, Norton (109) says that poor listening results when a student does not pay attention, or when he is thinking about his response rather than concentrating on what the speaker is saying. High concentration is needed in listening because most listening situations do not permit the listener to go back and review what he has heard.

Norton (109) also adds that testing for the attention ability is complicated by the fact that a student may attend to a speaker without being able to understand

him. Thus, poor communication can be caused either by inadequate attention, or by problems with the student's ability to process ideas.

### ***Auditory Comprehension***

The fourth diagnosis is auditory comprehension. Auditory comprehension refers to the listener's highly conscious seeking of meaning from a listening experience (Ur 47). In listening, the most important thing is the comprehension of what someone is talking about. A listener must understand or get the knowledge of the subject matter or context of the discourse.

Someone may listen for factual or literal understanding, or he may reach the higher level of listening, which Lundsteen refers to as "thinking beyond listening" (cited in Norton 97). Norton (110) points out that comprehension level of listening includes such skills as classifying information, categorizing, indexing, comparing, defining, predicting, applying, seeing cause and effect relationship, critically evaluating, appreciating, and creative problem solving.

Norton (110) discusses standardized tests, which are either group or individual-administrated to diagnosis on listening comprehension. According to her opinion, listening comprehension test measures ability in identifying, interpreting the main idea, remembering details and sequences, understanding word meaning and also has questions related to judging the validity of ideas, distinguishing fact from fancy, and noting contradiction.

### **C. Processes and Purposes of Listening Comprehension**

Two distinct kinds of processes are involved in listening comprehension, which are sometimes referred to as “bottom-up” and “top-down” processing. Richards (50) cites Chaudron and Richards' opinion (1986) that bottom-up processing refers to the use of incoming data as a source of information. This information is about the meaning of a message. The process of comprehension begins with the message received. This message is analyzed at successive levels of organization- sounds, words, clauses, and sentences- until the intended meaning is arrived at. Comprehension is thus viewed as a process of decoding.

Richards (51) states that top-down processing, on the other hand, refers to the use of background knowledge in understanding the meaning of a message. The background knowledge may take several forms. It may be previous knowledge about the topic of discourse, it may be situational or contextual knowledge, or it may be knowledge stored in long-term memory in the form of “schemata” and “script” – plans about overall structure of events and the relationship between them.

As well as recognizing the fundamental difference between top-down and bottom-up processing in listening comprehension, it is also necessary to recognize the different purposes that listener may have in different situations. These different purposes affect the way they go about listening. Brown and Yule (cited in Richards 54) classify the functions and purposes of language use into two: interactional and transactional functions.

Richards (55) states that interactional use of language is language which is used primarily for social communication. The purpose is more to create harmonious interaction between participants rather than to communicate information. The goal for the participants is to make social interaction comfortable and to communicate good will. Examples of interactional use of language are greetings, small talk, etc.

While transactional use of language is language, which is used primarily for communicating information (Richards 56) Transactional uses "message" oriented rather than "listener" oriented. The important thing of transactional use is accurate and coherent communication of the message. It means that the message can be understood easily. Examples of transactional purpose of language are broadcasts, lectures, instruction, etc.

#### **D. Biological Base of Listening with Visual Aids**

As in other processes of human's life, sensation and perception system and memory are also needed in processing language. Sense organs that are involved in processing perception and sensation are such as eyes and ears. Walter. M. Vernon (cited in Rathus 234) states that some form of energy, either from inside or outside the body, must stimulate receptor cells. These cells are in the sense organs such as the eye and the ear. Still related to sensation and perception, Spenser (cited in Rathus 235) also says that vision is sensory process through which the typical human being assimilates more information than through all the other senses combined.

When we listen to someone speak, our sense organs as well as our memory work together in order to understand and even give response to what the people are saying. One important thing that helps our understanding of what someone is saying is visual image. Fisher and Karsh (cited in Rathus 237) explain that it is possible to focus on maintaining a visual image in our memory before it decays. According to Keele (cited in Rathus 145), the image that is stored in short memory, tends to fade significantly after 10 to 12 seconds if it is not repeated or reheard and to store the visual image in our long-term memory, we need to repeat or rehear it several times. The way of this visual image to help the process of understanding of what someone is saying is through maintaining the visual image in the brain.

The correlation between ears and eyes is explained in a theory called mislocation theory. Young (cited in Blake & Sekuler 366) states that our brain believes our eyes and not our ears. What this binaural swap does to sound localization depends on whether we listen with eyes opened or closed. Probably the most convincing proof of vision dominance is provided by pseudophone -- the odd looking listening device pictured in Figure 1.



Figure 1#

A pseudophone receives the inputs to the two ears.

Hueber also (7) says that formerly it is thought that over 80 percent of what we learn comes through eyes. The eyes are still be considered of primary importance. It is undoubtedly the most impressionable of all the senses. He (7) also adds originally someone relies on pictorial representation for keeping records and the importance of vision in forming lasting impression cannot be over emphasized. Experimental evidence clearly demonstrates the great positive effect of visual aids in teaching.

#### **E. Teaching Listening**

There are three dimensions involved in the teaching listening comprehension. These are referred to as approach, design, and procedure. The first level is approach. Richards (189) says that approach is spelling out an assumptions of how listeners proceed in decoding utterances to extract meanings. The second level is design. According to Richards (197), design refers to the operationalization of information and theory into a form. We can formulate objectives, teaching and learning plans, and assessment from that. The third level is procedure. Procedure concerns exercise types and teaching techniques:

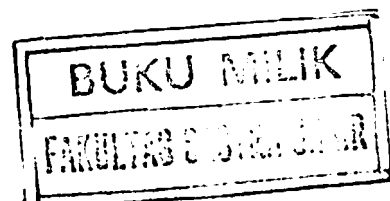
Listening approach has two aspects: message factors and medium factors. Richards (190) points put that message factor has three related levels of discourse processing involved in listening. Those factors are propositional identification, interpretation of illocutionary force, and activation of the real-world knowledge. Clark and Clark suggest that propositions are the basic units of meaning involved in comprehension and represented indirectly in the surface structure of utterances



(cited in Richards 90). The first thing that a listener does is determining the proposition that an utterance or speech event expresses. After that, to understand the meaning of utterance, a listener also uses the knowledge of syntax of target language and the real world knowledge in the long-term memory work together with meaning. When someone listens to an utterance, he does not retain actual words or grammatical devices that are used to express it but the propositional meaning of utterances.

Richards (196) explains that the act of speaking imposes a particular form on utterances, and this affects how messages are understood. The act of speaking results nine factors that influence the work of listeners in processing speech. According to his opinion, Those factors are: clausal basis of speech, reduced forms, ungrammatical forms, pausing and speech errors, rate of delivery, rhythm and stress, and information content (197). These factors are called medium factors.

Other important thing, which is closely linked to teaching to listening comprehension, is planning the exercises. Ur (22) maintains when planning listening exercises, it is essential to think of the kind of real-life situations to use. We also need to think of the specific difficulties, which the students are likely to encounter and think of practice to overcome the difficulties. There are two kinds of exercises: Visual based exercises (the learners get the book and question is answered by filling in the blanks) and visual -aided exercises (using picture, diagrams, etc). Ur (29) explains that learners look at visual material while



simultaneously following a spoken description of it. The discourse is easily improvised using the visual material as a basis.

### ***The use of Visual Aids***

Wright (2) points out that the picture contributes to interest and motivation, sense of the context of the language and a specific reference point or stimulus. By using picture, a student will be more pleased to learn a language. Rivers (114) states that pictures are one recognized way of representing real life situation, which is impossible to create in other way. That opinion is quite true because pictures can represent real object to be shown to the students in the classroom. Richards and Rodgers also point out that pictures and other visual aids are essential because they supply the content of the communication (138). The use of visual technique also can be used to enrich teacher's teaching method through supplementary instructional aids. Media equipment such as tapes, picture, slide, and transparencies can be supplementary instructional aids.

Visual aids are employed to take the place of the actual experience that cannot be had in the classroom. Hueber (6) explains that visual aids provide a continued experience. Pictures and drawings are simply displayed. The impression is probably more lasting too, because attention can be centered for any desired length of time on a still object. The impression is undoubtedly deeper, for most people seem to be visual-minded.

Related to picture, there are two kinds of pictures: motion and still pictures. The great difference between a motion picture and a still picture is that the former shows life in action where at the latter merely suggests action

Moreover Hueber (37) states that it is far more effective to concentrate on the scene and to eliminate motion. It is important for the teacher to imagine in advance how the pupils would interpret the picture. Interpretation of a picture is getting the meaning from the printed page. A listener also needs some environmental clues. Hueber (39) states that environmental clues, which are visual, often provide information about the situation, speakers, and general atmosphere. A listener can get the environmental clues from the visibility of the speaker, facial expression, posture, eye direction, proximity, gesture.

Pictures are really important for language learning. Gower and Walter (157) point out that picture can be used to create a new method in teaching language, making the teaching becomes more interesting, making the students remember the words easier and supplying a context for an activity, like role play. According to Hamalik (81-82), pictures have many advantages such as:

1. Pictures are realistic. Picture can show the real object and the real life situation. As Wright (126) writes, picture can be used to illustrate the context of situation, the people involved, and the subject of the communication.
2. Pictures are interesting. Pictures can brighten up the classroom and bring variety and interest into language lesson.
3. Pictures are easy to use for individual and group.
4. Pictures bring images of reality into the in-natural world of the language classroom.

## **F. Stress and Attention in Learning**

According to Semiawan (155), there are some factors that involve in learning. Those factors are divided into two: internal and external factors. External factors are instructional purpose and teaching material while external factors are interest and attention, cognitive ability, and motivation. The internal factors are basic of learner's ability and willingness on giving response. Interest, attention and motivation are psychological factors.

Regarding the psychological factors of learning, Sudjana & Suwariyah (23) point out that attention, as a part of psychological aspects, involves interest, focus, understanding, and boredom,. Those are connected one another. Attention is learner's positive response towards subject at hand, in which sometimes involves environmental stimulus. Gibson & Rader state that attention is a process of picking up aspects of stimulus environment (cited in Berk 281).

Munasir (59) writes another aspect that involves in learning is stress. Stress in learning is a normal phenomenon. He (60) says, further, it is caused by some factors, such as difficulties that a learner finds when he is learning and feeling tired. Stress is also caused by a learner's manner during learning time. Learning in a relaxed manner shows that a learner does not get stress.

# **CHAPTER III**

## **DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS**