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Listening in English Classes: Learners' Perspective

Michaela Procházková

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Jméno a příjmení: **Michaela Procházková**
Osobní číslo: **H14034**
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Z á s a d y p r o v y p r a c o v á n í :

Studentka se ve své práci bude zabývat rozvojem poslechu s porozuměním ve výuce anglického jazyka. V teoretické části nejprve stručně definuje koncept komunikační kompetence jako cíle cizojazyčné výuky. Dále formuluje teoretická východiska pro výuku poslechu včetně diskuse determinant jeho rozvoje. Zaměří se specificky na postoje studentů k této výuce. V praktické části práce studentka realizuje vlastní výzkumné šetření, v jehož rámci bude prostřednictvím dotazníku zjišťovat postoje studentů k výuce poslechu.

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PaedDr. Monika Černá, Ph.D.

Katedra anglistiky a amerikanistiky

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prof. PhDr. Karel Rýdl, CSc.
děkan



doc. Šárka Bubíková, Ph.D.
vedoucí katedry

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Souhlasím s prezenčním zpřístupněním své práce v Univerzitní knihovně.

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ANNOTATION

This bachelor thesis deals with listening in English classes and the learners' perspective on the listening skill in the context of Czech elementary schools. In the theoretical part, the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education and the foreign language section is mentioned as well as the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, from which the communicative competences are discussed in the paper. Next, the listening skill and the different roles of listening and activities connected to listening are found in the paper. In the practical part, learners' perspective and opinions on listening are answered in the form of a questionnaire.

KEYWORDS

Listening, listening activities, communicative competences, learners' perspective

NÁZEV

Pohled žáků na výuku poslechu v hodinách anglického jazyka

ANOTACE

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá poslechem v hodinách anglického jazyka a pohledem žáků na poslechovou dovednost v kontextu českých základních škol. Teoretická část se věnuje Rámcovému vzdělávacímu programu pro základní vzdělávání a sekci pro cizí jazyk v něm zmíněnou. Následně je zmíněn Společný evropský referenční rámec, a to především v něm uvedené komunikační kompetence. V práci jsou dále vypsány různé role poslechu a aktivit, které jsou spojené s poslechem. V praktické části práce jsou předloženy výsledky dotazníku na téma pohled a názory žáků na poslech.

KLÍČOVÁ SLOVA

poslech, poslechové aktivity, komunikační kompetence, pohled žáků

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	10
THEORETICAL PART	11
1. FRAMEWORK EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME FOR BASIC EDUCATION	11
1.1 Key competencies	11
1.1.2 Communication competencies.....	11
1.2 Foreign language	12
1.2.1 Foreign language – stage 1	12
1.2.2 Foreign language – stage 2	13
2. COMMON EUROPEAN FRAMEWORK OF REFERENCE (CEFR)	14
2.1 Common European Framework of Reference definition	14
2.2 Communicative competences.....	14
3. LEARNER’S COMPETENCES IN CEFR	16
3.1 General competences	16
3.1.1 Declarative knowledge	16
3.1.2 Skills and know-how	16
3.1.3 ‘Existential’ competence	17
3.1.4 Ability to learn.....	17
3.2 Communicative language competences	17
3.2.1 Linguistic competences	18
3.2.1.1 Lexical competence	18
3.2.1.2 Grammatical competence	19
3.2.1.3 Semantic competence	19
3.2.1.4 Phonological competence	20
3.2.1.5 Orthographic competence	20
3.2.1.6 Orthoepic competence	20
3.2.2 Sociolinguistic competences	20
3.2.3 Pragmatic competences	22
4. LISTENING.....	25
4.1 Definition of listening	25
4.2 Potential sources of problems in listening	26
4.3 Role of non-verbal signs	26
4.4 Listening in EFL classes	27

4.4.1 English as a foreign language.....	27
4.5 Bottom-up and top-down approaches to listening	28
4.5.1 Bottom-up approach	28
4.5.2 Top-down approach.....	29
5. THE ROLES OF LISTENING AND ACTIVITIES	31
5.1 The role of pre-listening.....	31
5.2 The role of while-listening	33
5.3 The role of post-listening	35
PRACTICAL PART	37
6. RESEARCH AND ITS AIM	37
6.1 Data analysis	37
7. LISTENING DEFINITIONS OF THE A1 AND A2 LEVEL LEARNERS	39
7.1 Characteristics of the sixth and seventh grades learners	40
8. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	41
8.1 Question one.....	41
8.2 Question two	42
8.3 Question three	43
8.4 Question four.....	44
8.5 Question five	45
8.6 Question six.....	46
8.7 Question seven	47
8.8 Question eight	48
8.9 Question nine	49
8.10 Question ten	50
8.11 Question eleven.....	51
8.12 Question twelve.....	52
8.13 Question thirteen	53
8.14 Question fourteen	54
8.15 Question fifteen.....	55
CONCLUSION.....	56
RESUMÉ	57
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	62
APPENDICES	64

TABLE OF CHARTS

Chart 1 – Class attendance.....	41
Chart 2 – Learners’ feelings towards English.....	42
Chart 3 – Learners’ feelings about listening activities	43
Chart 4 – Learners’ feelings about the difficulty of listening activities	44
Chart 5 – Positive reasons and attitudes towards listening activities	45
Chart 6 – Negative reasons and attitudes towards listening activities	46
Chart 7 – Most liked listening activities	47
Chart 8 – Recognition of the accent.....	48
Chart 9 – Pre-listening activities.....	49
Chart 10 – Understanding of the tasks.....	50
Chart 11 – While-listening activities	51
Chart 12 – Post-listening activities	52
Chart 13 – Form of work	53

INTRODUCTION

One of the four main skills in language learning is listening. Without listening, it would be impossible to learn and use the language for communicative purposes.

Listening might be sometimes perceived as one of the hardest skill to learn and practice, therefore it may not be that popular from the pupils' point of view. However, practicing listening is not just rewriting the recording or filling text in the gaps. There are many techniques of teaching the listening skill.

This paper deals with the listening and the learners' perspective on this skill. The paper is divided into two parts:

In the first, theoretical part, Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education will be mentioned as this thesis is written in the context of Czech elementary schools. Next, based on the foreign language section from the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education, communicative competences from the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) will be discussed because the CEFR document is used when teaching English in the Czech schools. Both types of communicative competences from the CEFR, general competences and communicative language competences will be discussed in this paper. Next, the listening skill will be described in this paper from different points of view. There will be the top-down and bottom-up approaches mentioned in the thesis as well as the pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening roles. When describing these roles, activities connected with the roles and listening itself that could be practiced in the EFL classes will be presented along.

Secondly, in the practical part, the learners' perspective on listening will be asked in the form of a questionnaire. The questionnaires were given to the pupils of sixth and seventh grades of a Czech elementary school. The aim and the research methodology will be specified in the introduction to the practical part. Also, before presenting the results of the questionnaires, specific information about the learners who completed the questionnaires will be found in the practical part of this paper. Finally, every question from the questionnaire will be described separately in the form of charts and statements.

THEORETICAL PART

1. FRAMEWORK EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME FOR BASIC EDUCATION

The Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education is a document used at a national level in the Czech Republic. As its name suggests, this document is a tool for elementary/basic school education, it defines norms in various phases. The School Educational Programmes at a school level are developed in every basic school individually. Teaching itself is based on the School Educational Programme in every school and at the same time the School Educational Programme depends on the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education (MŠMT, 2016). As the newest version of the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education from 2016 is in the Czech language only, I decided to translate the Czech terms into English myself with reference to the previous version of the document which is available in the English language (MŠMT, 2007).

The Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education stresses the key competences, interlaces the use of gained knowledge and skills in practical life, specifies the expected level of education and supports educational independence of schools and teachers, where teachers are responsible for the results of the educational process (MŠMT, 2016).

1.1 Key competencies

Knowledge, skills, abilities, attitudes and values are important for every person's individual maturation according to the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education. Therefore, to gain key competencies and prepare learners for additional education is a process included here. The key competencies gained during the years of basic education should be essential for the learners' life-long education. One of the key competencies mentioned in the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education are communication competencies (MŠMT, 2016).

1.1.2 Communication competencies

Communication competencies in the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education describe what learners are able to do after they finish the basic school. The learners are able to express their opinions in oral and written forms; to listen to other people talking, understand, discuss and share their opinions with them; understand gestures used, sounds, texts and records, and react to them; communicate with the world by using technologies and

communicating systems; and build relationships by using gained communicative skills (MŠMT, 2016).

1.2 Foreign language

According to the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education, learning a foreign language helps to explore differences between people of various cultures, their lifestyle. It also supports international understanding and tolerance.

The requirements for learning and acquiring a foreign language mentioned in the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education are based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, which will be dealt with in the second chapter. At the end of the basic educational process, the learners are supposed to have acquired the A2 level of competence, which means they can understand sentences and frequently used phrases, can describe topics, such as a family, shopping or jobs, and can communicate on the level of usual reality (MŠMT, 2016).

Furthermore, outcomes of the key competencies should lead the learner to understand the language and its historical and cultural background; understand the language as a tool for education; acquire the language and use it for getting and giving information and explanation of needs; be able to use the language independently for research; gain self-confidence while speaking, etc. (MŠMT, 2016).

1.2.1 Foreign language – stage 1

Stage 1 is considered to be classes from 1st to 5th grade of the basic school. During these five years, there are 2 periods. Expected outcomes are described in every period.

In the first period of the stage 1 only *speaking skills* can be found. At the end of this period, a learner should be able to understand what the teacher says, use vocabulary that was practiced during the lessons, write, speak and listen at the beginner level.

Next, in the second period of the stage 1, *listening with understanding, speaking, reading with understanding* and *writing* are mentioned.

In the *listening with understanding* section, the learner should be able to understand teacher's questions, simple sentences and played records, if they are pronounced slowly and clearly and if having a visual support.

In *speaking*, the learner is capable of taking part in basic discussion, saying essential information about the learner, family, school and leisure time and also is capable of answering questions regarding the topics mentioned.

Reading with understanding requires the learner to find important information in an easy text about the topics he/she is familiar with and to understand the texts if the visual support is there.

In *writing* the learner knows how to write a short text using familiar vocabulary and phrases concerning the topics mentioned above. Also, the learner should be able to fill the personal data in a form (MŠMT, 2016).

1.2.2 Foreign language – stage 2

The Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education also mentions *stage 2*, which is from 6th to 9th grade of the basic school. On the contrary, stage 2 does not have any periods (MŠMT, 2016). This might be because learners in the stage 2 are already familiar with the language in a particular way.

Listening with understanding, speaking, reading with understanding and *writing* are parts of stage 2.

Listening with understanding should make learner understand played listening texts if they are pronounced slowly and clearly. Also the learner should be able to comprehend a conversation based on a topic the listener is familiar with.

In *speaking* the learner should ask for particular information and react in formal and informal situations as well as speak about such topics as family, friends, leisure time, and tell a story.

In *reading with understanding* the learner will understand and find information in everyday authentic materials and easy texts.

Finally, in *writing* the learner will be able to fill the basic information about him/her in the form, write short texts about topics he/she is already familiar with (family, friends, school,...) and reply to an easy message (MŠMT, 2016).

2. COMMON EUROPEAN FRAMEWORK OF REFERENCE (CEFR)

2.1 Common European Framework of Reference definition

The Common European Framework of Reference is a language tool book used across Europe. It provides a lot of information on which language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. are based. This Common European Framework defines how learners should learn a language so they are able to use and communicate in the language, also it defines the knowledge and skills the learners need to gain so they are able to act efficiently.

The Common European Framework was written mainly for people working with languages such as teachers, teacher trainers, course designers, etc. This framework helps them to equal a number of educational systems in Europe. In other words, instead of every European country having a different educational system, which may include different evaluation system or different leveling of learners, The Common European Framework is a tool for European countries to unify their educational system with other European countries. This all should lead to international co-operation of language institutions in Europe (Council of Europe, 2003).

2.2 Communicative competences

In this paper, the Common European Framework's Communicative Competence will be discussed, as it applies across Europe. However, this communicative competence is not the only one. There have been many other definitions of communicative competences described in different years by different authors.

First, Hymes described a communicative competence in which for the learners, the linguistic knowledge is not the only aspect of communication but also ways of interaction between people in different situations should be known to the learners of the second language. Therefore, Hymes' communicative competence includes the interaction of grammatical, psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, and probabilistic language components (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

Additionally, based on Hymes' description of the communicative competence, Canale and Swain later also included grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence as parts of the communicative competence (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

Another communicative competence is from Bachman and Palmer (1996). They do not use the word competence, but knowledge.

Firstly, they mention organizational knowledge, which includes grammatical knowledge (vocabulary, syntax, and phonology/graphology) and textual knowledge (cohesion and knowledge of rhetorical or conversational organization). Pragmatic knowledge is introduced as a part of the communicative competence. It contains functional knowledge (knowledge of ideational, manipulative, heuristic and imaginative functions) and sociolinguistic knowledge where knowledge of dialects/varieties, registers, natural or idiomatic expressions and knowledge of cultural references and figures of speech can be found. Last, strategic competence takes place in Bachman and Palmer's communicative competence. Strategic competence includes goal setting, assessment and planning (Bachman & Palmer, 1996).

3. LEARNER'S COMPETENCES IN CEFR

In the Common European Framework of Reference, two types of competences are described. Firstly, general competences that are more about the everyday knowledge are listed. Secondly, communicative language competences that are about the language learning are mentioned in the book (Council of Europe, 2003). General competences are described in this paper because these competences are essential basis for the communicative language competences, for example to know the local culture, traditions, customs, habits, food, and other topics connected to the country in which the language is spoken because all this is closely connected with learning a new language and listening itself.

CEFR's communicative competences were chosen because they are applicable in the European Union. Also, in the Czech *Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education* in the section of Foreign Language it is stated that the requirements for foreign language education are based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (MŠMT, 2016).

3.1 General competences

3.1.1 Declarative knowledge

Declarative knowledge is mentioned as a part of general competences. The declarative knowledge divides into: *knowledge of the world*, *sociocultural knowledge* and *intercultural awareness*.

Knowledge of the world contains basic information about the world and its functions. It is fully established in childhood, and later with the age the knowledge increases.

Sociocultural knowledge is the knowledge of the place, society and culture in which a language is spoken (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 102-103).

The last out of the knowledge of the world is *intercultural awareness*. The Common European Framework describes this awareness as “knowledge, awareness and understanding of the relation (similarities and distinctive differences) between the ‘world of origin’ and the ‘world of the target community’” (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 102).

3.1.2 Skills and know-how

Skills and know-how is another part of the general competences. Skills and know-how section divides into: *practical skills and know-how* and *intercultural skills and know-how*. *Practical*

skills and know-how contains social skills, living skills, vocational and professional skills, and leisure skills. *Intercultural skills and know-how* is described as “co-operation” between cultures. Also, the stereotype thinking should be overcome with the help of this skill (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 104).

3.1.3 ‘Existential’ competence

‘Existential’ competence takes its place in the general competences. This competence deals with everybody’s individual personality. In this competence, there are factors such as: attitudes (interests, experiences, ideas, willingness); motivations (intrinsic/extrinsic); values (ethical and moral); beliefs (religious, philosophical); cognitive styles (holistic/analytic/synthetic); personality factors (optimism/pessimism, etc.). All these factors of personality influence the way people communicate or their learning ability (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 105).

3.1.4 Ability to learn

Last of the general competences is the *ability to learn*. The ability to learn “is the ability to observe and participate in new experiences and to incorporate new knowledge into existing knowledge, modifying the latter where necessary.” (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 106)

The ability to learn distinguishes into: language and communication awareness, general phonetic awareness and skills, study skills, and heuristic skills. *Language and communication awareness* points out that the understanding of the language and the way the language works help learners to acquire the language more easily than learning the established linguistic system without any knowledge about the language learnt. *General phonetic awareness and skills* focus on pronouncing sounds and sound sequences which helps students to learn the phonetics of the particular language. *Study skills* are mainly about the activities through which the language is learnt. These activities contain pair and group work, study materials, having one’s own goals, etc. Finally, *heuristic skills* describe the ability of the learner to adapt to new terms, to meet new friends, to work with new technologies. In other words, heuristic skills characterize whether the new things the language brings the learner is able to accept (Council of Europe, 2003).

3.2 Communicative language competences

According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, it distinguishes the communicative language competences as followed: linguistic competences,

sociolinguistic competences and pragmatic competences. These competences, in language learning, go together with the general competences described above, they are related (Council of Europe, 2003).

In this paper, the A2 level of the communicative language competences will be described because the practical part of the thesis is focused on the A2 level learners' experience with the language.

3.2.1 Linguistic competences

First of the language communicative competences mentioned in the Common European Framework of Reference are linguistic competences. These competences contain the way in which the language is used for communication. Also, it is mentioned that every language continues to evolve with time. The language develops as much as there is need for it to be used in communication (Council of Europe, 2003).

Linguistic competences are divided into these: lexical competence, grammatical competence, semantic competence, phonological competence, orthographic competence and orthoepic competence (Council of Europe, 2003).

3.2.1.1 Lexical competence

Lexical competence is focused on the knowledge of and ability to use the vocabulary. There are two types of the lexical competence: *lexical elements* (which consist of *fixed expressions* and *single word forms*) and *grammatical elements* (Council of Europe, 2003).

Fistly, *fixed expressions* consist of words that are studied as wholes. The fixed expressions contain:

- *Sentential formulae*, for example greetings (*Good afternoon!*), proverbs or relict archaisms.
- *Phrasal idioms*, for instance semantically frozen metaphors (*He kicked the bucket*, which means he died) and intensifiers (*as white as snow*, which means clear).
- *Fixed frames*, studied as wholes which are later put into a sentence with its meaning (*"Please could I get..."*).
- *Other fixed phrases* including phrasal verbs (*to cheer up*, *count on somebody*) and compound prepositions (*in front of*).
- *Fixed collocations*, words that exist regularly together, for example *do your best* (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 110-111).

Secondly, *single word forms* are part of the lexical elements. These single word forms are words that might have some different meanings, for example *bank*. There is a *bank*, a building in which money is dealt with. On the other hand, a *bank* is land on a side of the river. Also, open word classes and closed lexical sets belong to the *single word forms* (Council of Europe, 2003).

Last, *grammatical elements* are included in lexical competence. Grammatical elements are part of closed word classes, for example in the English language there are: articles (an), quantifiers (some), demonstratives (this, these), personal pronouns (he), question words and relatives (why), possessives (ours), prepositions (for), auxiliary verbs (be, do), conjunctions (but) and particles (Council of Europe, 2003).

3.2.1.2 Grammatical competence

Second of the Common European Framework of Reference language communicative competences is the grammatical competence. Grammatical competence is a competence of how to use grammar of a language in a proper way. This competence focuses on using grammar by rules of the language and also on understanding and expressing meaning by creating phrases and sentences accordingly to the rules of grammar. The Common European Framework of Reference divides grammatical description into these categories:

Elements (morphs, morphemes-roots and affixes, words), categories (number, case, past, present), classes (nouns, verbs,...), structures (compound and complex words, clauses,...), processes (gradation, transformation,...), relations (concord, valency).

In CEFR, grammatical accuracy is described for different levels of the language from C2 to A1. For instance the A2 level learner is defined as somebody who can use simple sentences correctly but sometimes makes mistakes such as mixing tenses together. Further, when the A2 level student communicates, it is usually evident what he/she is expressing (Council of Europe, 2003).

3.2.1.3 Semantic competence

Semantic competence considers the experience and mastery of the arrangement of meaning of the learners. There are three types of semantics: lexical semantics, grammatical semantic and pragmatic semantics (Council of Europe, 2003).

Firstly, *lexical semantics* handles questions that meaning of the words brings. There are two groups of the lexical semantics: relation of word to general context (reference, connotation

and exponents of general specific notions) and interlexical relations (synonymy/antonymy, hyponymy, collocations, translation equivalence, etc.).

Secondly, *grammatical semantics* talks about signification of grammatical elements, categories, structures and processes (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 116).

Lastly, *pragmatic semantics* handles logical connections, for example presupposition, implicature, etc. (Council of Europe, 2003).

3.2.1.4 Phonological competence

Phonological competence deals with the ability of understanding and producing the sound-units (phonemes) and awareness of them in appropriate circumstances (allophones), phonemes detection (distinctive features, for example nasality, voicing, etc.), words structure (word stress, word tones, etc.), phonetics of the sentence (rhythm and stress of the sentence, intonation) and phonetic reduction such as assimilation, elision, strong and weak forms and vowel reduction (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 116).

3.2.1.5 Orthographic competence

Orthographic competence deals with the ability of understanding and producing symbols of writing. The knowledge of an alphabet of the language is an important skill in this competence. The learners should know letters in both printed and cursive styles in upper and lower case, spelling of the words, punctuation marks, and different types of fonts and signs that are often used in everyday life such as “&” sign (Council of Europe, 2003).

3.2.1.6 Orthoepic competence

Orthoepic competence is a competence when the learners who read the text or have a text in a written form to present need to know the correct pronunciation of these kinds of texts. For this purpose, the learners should have the knowledge of spelling conventions, should be able to look up the words in a dictionary and find out the right pronunciation, should be able to phrase and intonate while speaking which is based on the punctuation marks and to recognize ambiguity such as homonyms in the situation (Council of Europe, 2003).

3.2.2 Sociolinguistic competences

Sociolinguistic competences deal with the social background of the language. In other words, the information about the social dimension of the language is the key role of this competence. The Common European Framework of Reference divides the sociolinguistic competences into

five groups: linguistic markers of social relations, politeness conventions, expressions of folk wisdom, register differences, and dialect and accent (Council of Europe, 2003).

Firstly, *linguistic markers of social relations* are not the same in every country. They differ in, for example, relative status, closeness of relation or register of discourse. However, CEFR mentions examples for the English language. They are: use and choice of greetings (Hello, Bye), use and choice of address forms (Sir, Madam, Dear, My Lord), conventions for turntaking, and use and choice of expletives, such as “Dear, Dear!” (Council of Europe, 2003).

Secondly, *politeness conventions* are different in every culture. They might cause misunderstanding between people of two different cultures. The Common European Framework of Reference divides these conventions into four categories.

The first category is called ‘*positive*’ politeness. Giving presents, expressing admiration, sharing experiences and showing sympathy are part of the ‘positive’ politeness. In the second category, ‘*negative*’ politeness, avoiding face-threatening behavior, apologizing for this behavior and using hedges are mentioned. The third category deals with the use of words such as ‘please’ and ‘thank you’. Last, the dislike and frankness, complaints and anger can be found in the fourth category, *impoliteness* (Council of Europe, 2003).

Thirdly, *expressions of folk wisdom* include proverbs, idioms, quotations, etc. These expressions may vary in cultures of different countries. For this reason, they are mentioned in the sociocultural competence. These days posters, graffiti, and slogans have this role, expression of folk wisdom.

Fourthly, *register differences* deal with different varieties of the language according to its formality. The Common European Framework of Reference mentions these types of formality: frozen (Pray silence for His Worship the Mayor!), formal (May we now come to order, please.), neutral (Shall we begin?), informal (Right. What about making a start?), familiar (O.K. Let’s get going.), and intimate (Ready dear?) (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 120).

Even though the CEFR recognizes these types of register differences, the learners up to the B1 level do not really use it. The varieties of register become known to the learners at a higher level of learning as they might read different types of texts, so then they start seeing the differences between them (Council of Europe, 2003).

Lastly, there is the *dialect and accent*. In this competence, the learner is able to recognize, for example social class, regional provenance, nationality, ethnicity and occupational group. What helps learners to recognize these could be lexicon, grammar, phonology, vocal characteristics, paralinguistics, and body language (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 119-121).

In CEFR, there is also mentioned what an A2 level learner should know in accordance with sociolinguistic appropriateness. The learner should be able to communicate on the basic level of the language, to share information and ideas on the same level. Also, the social communication as greetings should be acquired by the learner. Next, the learner should be able to form and react to invitations, suggestions, apologies, etc. (Council of Europe, 2003).

3.2.3 Pragmatic competences

Pragmatic competences deal with learner's understanding of the messages from these points of view: organized, structured and arranged (discourse competence), used to perform communicative functions (functional competence), and sequenced according to interactional and transactional schemata (design competence) (Council of Europe, 2003).

Firstly, *discourse competence* deals with coherent arrangement of sentences while producing the language. This involves: topic, natural sequencing, cause/effect, logical order, style and register, relevance, etc. In the same way, not just producing the language in a verbal form but also a written text has its rules. For example, the text design describes how to tell jokes or how the outline of stories should be, but also it deals with how to write essays or letters (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 123).

There are four aspects of discourse competence: flexibility to circumstances, turntaking, thematic development, and coherence and cohesion.

In *flexibility*, the definition for the A2 level learner is that the learner is able to remember simple sentences using his limited vocabulary. Also, making new phrases, from getting different parts of the sentences learned, together is specified for the A2 level.

In *turntaking* the A2 level describes using methods to begin, continue and bring a short conversation to the end. Also, at this level the learner should be able to ask for attention.

For the A2 level learner telling stories and describing something on a basic level should be a part of *thematic development*.

Last, *coherence and cohesion* at the A2 level describes connecting simple phrases or a list of points chronologically. Also, usage of conjunctions in sentences should appear at this level.

Secondly, the *functional competence* deals with the text being spoken or written for specific purposes. In other words, functional competence is about the learner ability to take the text through several stages such as opening, plot and the end. The functional competence mentions: microfunctions, macrofunctions and interaction schemata (Council of Europe, 2003).

Microfunctions consist of short expressions for functional purpose of a communication. They are classified as following: imparting and seeking factual information (reporting, correcting, asking), expressing and finding out attitudes (knowledge, modality, emotions), suasion (suggestions, requests, offers), socializing (addressing, greetings, introductions), structuring discourse (opening, closing) and communication repair (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 126).

Next, *macrofunctions* include continuity for functional purpose of spoken discourse or written text. Macrofunctions can be: description, narration, commentary, exposition, explanation, instruction, argumentation, etc. (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 126).

Interaction schemata deal with a pattern of verbal exchange, for example, questions and answers, greetings and responses, etc. This exchange pattern might be used in situations such as managing actions, evaluating or identifying what could be changed.

The Common European Framework of Reference also mentions *general schema for purchase of goods and services*, in which moving to place of transaction (finding the way somewhere), establishing contact (greeting the workers in the particular place), selecting goods/services (finding some information out, giving advice), exchanging goods for payment (receiving goods, paying and exchanging thanks), and finally leave-taking (expressing satisfaction and greeting) takes the role. However, it is mentioned that this schema does not have to appear on every similar occasion (Council of Europe, 2003, p. 127-128).

In addition, two types of achievement of the learner's ability to communicate are: *fluency*, an ability to pronounce and be able to speak when the conversation seems to end unexpectedly, and *propositional precision*, an ability to share ideas to they make sense to the listener (Council of Europe, 2003).

For *spoken fluence*, an A2 level learner should be able to make the meaning of his ideas clear even though some pauses and self-correction may occur. Also, for this learner it should be possible to create conversations on topics he/she is familiar with even though he/she may not feel very comfortable.

Propositional precision should make an A2 level learner to be able to communicate about what he/she wants to speak about in phrases he/she is familiar with. In other situations the learner needs to compromise the message (Council of Europe, 2003).

To sum up this chapter, listening is closely related to other skills and therefore even when listening itself is not mentioned in some of the communicative competences, it is still part of them.

4. LISTENING

4.1 Definition of listening

Buck defines listening comprehension as a process in which the learner takes the incoming data and in which is able to understand the meaning and use it in appropriate situations (Buck, 2001).

Wilson also points out the characteristics of spoken English, he describes listening as the decoding of messages – the spoken text does not include gaps that are in the written text. Also, he mentions elision (when sounds are missing), assimilation (when the first sound changes to adapt the following sounds) and intrusion (when a sound is added to make the speech more fluent). Next, phrases that are chunked are selected. These are phrases that are said very quickly so they sound as one word (Wilson, 2008).

Wilson adds that humans listen mainly to get some information that they want to know (Wilson, 2008). He divides listening into the following categories:

Listening for gist – This occurs when people listen to understand the general idea of what somebody has said, also when they want to know the reason why somebody is speaking and if the communication between people talking is successful.

Listening for specific information – This happens when people are looking for a very specific part of what is being said, they do not need to understand everything. For example, at the train station people might be curious only about their delayed train, so that is the information they are waiting for and they do not need to listen and understand anything else.

Listening in detail – This takes place when people take into account everything that they listen to, for instance when they focus on finding mistakes or when they need to find differences between two paragraphs.

Inferential listening – This occurs when people wish to know the feelings of people talking. Inferring might be included. In brief, inferring is listening to a statement which is not described precisely but the listener can imagine what it means. In other words, inferring is when a listener hears something and finds out what is beyond the stated phrase (Wilson, 2008). For example when “I bought tomatoes” is said, the listener can imagine the person who went to the supermarket, took a basket, went to the vegetables section, found tomatoes,

put them to the basket, went to the cashier desk, paid for the tomatoes and brought them home.

Listening for specific information and listening in detail appears more in a classroom than in real life, on the other hand listening for gist and inferential listening are part of our daily life.

4.2 Potential sources of problems in listening

Equally important, accent, stress and speech rate are mentioned by Buck (2001) as characteristics of spoken texts. Different groups of people in different countries have different accents. Even in one country, for example in the United Kingdom, inhabitants of the north have their own characteristic accent, as well as people living in the south of the country. This is the reason why some learners might have problems with listening. They may not be familiar with the particular accent when they hear it for the first time. It is supposed that it is harder for the learner of the language than for the native speaker to adapt to a new accent.

The use of stress is also different in many languages. In the English language there are two kinds of stress, word stress and sentence stress. In the word stress there is the emphasis on different syllables in the words. In the sentence stress, the most important word is emphasized and then one sentence can have more meanings just by changing the stress.

Next, speech rate might sometimes be a problem for language learners, too. They may consider what they listen to to be too fast. However, to think that the speech is fast does not mean it really is. As the learners become more fluent in the language, the speech starts to seem to be slower than before (Buck, 2001).

4.3 Role of non-verbal signs

Buck also comments on the use of non-verbal signals. These signals, such as the movement of lips or a tongue, help the listener to understand the meaning. Visual support, for example body movement and gestures, may mostly help beginners to comprehend listening more easily mainly in such situations as greetings or recognition of the mood of the speaker (Buck, 2001).

In the same way, Hedge (2000) mentions that during listening we can usually see the person speaking, and this person usually uses non-verbal signs to complete the meaning. The lip movement and body gestures might be very helpful especially when the recording played is not of a good quality. Hedge also comments on the use of audio materials in the classes,

mainly when in a real situation the speakers would be visible. In situations like this, it might be really hard for the learner to understand the meaning of the recording without the contextual clues. It should be the teacher who needs to make sure that these clues are known to the listeners (Hedge, 2000).

On the other hand, in some situations as a telephone call or listening to the radio, recordings without visual material are practical (Hedge, 2000).

4.4 Listening in EFL classes

In the past, listening was not understood to be as important as speaking. To have knowledge of the second language meant to know how to speak and write in that language. Nowadays, more and more emphasis is given to the listening skill in EFL classes because it brings input for the learner (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

4.4.1 English as a foreign language

ESL is an abbreviation for English as a Second Language. However, this is not the only shorter form when we speak about the second language learning. *EFL* abbreviation can be used as well. *EFL* means English as a Foreign Language.

Harmer (2007) mentions that for a long time *ESL* and *EFL* were thought to be and carry a different meaning. *EFL* students were those students of the English language who lived in a non-English speaking country and learnt the language for communicating with other English speakers. *ESL* students were described as students living in an English speaking country who needed to know the language to survive in the local society, so they could use the services needed.

However, these days it might be really hard to find the difference between *ESL* and *EFL* students. Harmer (2007) mentions two reasons for that.

Firstly, some communities in the countries (either English or non-English) became multilingual and the English language is being considered as a language of communication for the communities.

Secondly, English is now used worldwide as a language of communication, for example on the Internet. This makes students having a place in a global target-language society.

Therefore, Harmer suggests that instead of using ESL or EFL, teachers should be teaching ESOL, which means English to Speakers of Other Languages, because this term is used for a more multilingual global reality (Harmer, 2007).

On the other hand, Cameron (2005) mentions, that learning English as a Second Language hugely differs from learning English as a Foreign Language. In her book, *Teaching Languages to Young Learners*, she comments: “The central characteristics of foreign language learning lie in the amount and type of exposure to the language: there will be very little experience of the language outside the classroom, and encounters with the language will be through several hours of teaching in a school week” (Cameron, 2005, p. 11).

Even though these days when English is perceived as a global language and learners can come across the English language for example on the Internet during their free time, they still may not experience the use of the language in their everyday lives, for instance in activities like doing the shopping.

On the contrary, English as a Second Language can be practiced in countries such as Canada, where an English speaking person can learn French and French speaking learner can study English.

In short, in English as a Foreign Language classes it is the teacher who brings the language to the class and uses different activities for the students to learn the language (Cameron, 2005).

Also, the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education in the Czech Republic refers to languages taught as foreign languages (MŠMT, 2007).

4.5 Bottom-up and top-down approaches to listening

Listening is not easy and therefore researchers use two types to describe the system of listening. They are the bottom-up and the top-down approaches to listening.

4.5.1 Bottom-up approach

The bottom-up model is focused on decoding the smallest units of listening (Wilson, 2008). This model starts with the lowest stage of detail and continues to the highest stage of detail. For example, phonemes can be considered as the lowest stage of detail which creates words. Through semantic stage and syntactic understanding it leads into recognizing what the speaker said; the meaning (Buck, 2001). Syntactic structure means that the listener expects the information to come in word order (Hedge, 2000). In other words, the bottom-up model

sees listening as an operation which goes through a number of stages and the outcome of every stage is the income for the following stage (Buck, 2001).

Hedge (2000) adds that even the stress on the important words, pauses, tempo and non-verbal signs help the listener to understand the meaning of what he/she listened to. Equally important, the knowledge of vocabulary plays its role in the bottom-up process. Even though the listener does not know all the words, from those that he/she knows it is possible to understand the information heard. Hedge (2000) also points out that at first, when a listener hears information, for example: “The jumper lay on the ground...” a jumper made of wool seems to be on the ground. Next, the information continues: “...clutching his ankle and moaning softly.” From this, it is visible that as the second part of the information is known to the listener, it changes the meaning completely (Hedge, 2000).

In addition, there are three types of memory that help the listener to process the information.

Firstly, *echoic memory* is the kind of memory that holds the information just for a very few seconds and focuses mainly on the key words, pauses or other critical elements.

Secondly, the *short-term memory* helps the listener to keep the message in mind while decoding the meaning and deciding what is necessary to keep in mind and what is not. Also, it might happen that there is too much unfamiliar information in the *short-term memory* what can lead to the loss of the information.

Lastly, the *long-term memory* takes its place in processing the information and it seems that the summary of the information is more likely to be kept in the memory than any detailed information (Hedge, 2000).

4.5.2 Top-down approach

The top-down model is known as the alternative one because the previous knowledge, context and situation are important while listening. The listener actively creates the meaning which is based on the incoming sounds (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

Furthermore, Hedge (2000) points out that having sociocultural knowledge and knowing the topic of the speakers help the learner to understand the situation and the meaning. Also, contextual clues connected with the prior knowledge support the understanding of the message. Contextual clues include the knowledge of the topic, speakers, the setting and reasons of the speech. Prior knowledge is also known as a schematic knowledge. Schematic

knowledge is made up of what we keep in our memories, the topics. When there are two people speaking the same language but with different schematic knowledge, confusion can appear, for instance because of different habits known to the people (Hedge, 2000).

According to Hedge (2000), there are two types of schemata: *formal schemata* and *content schemata*.

In the first place, *formal schemata* mean having some kind of general knowledge of some speech occurrence. To illustrate, when the listeners hear “they lived happily ever after”, they recognize that this phrase is connected with stories, fairytales, that are usually associated with the plot, characters, happy ending.

In the second place, *content schemata* consist of the general world knowledge, topic knowledge and sociocultural knowledge. Sometimes even local knowledge might be needed (Hedge, 2000).

In conclusion, it is evident, that the prior knowledge helps the learners to understand the meaning while listening. Also, it is important to see the bottom-up and top-down approaches to listening as mutually supportive. They both depend on each other. Therefore, this makes listening an interactive skill, in which contextual clues and linguistic information create understanding (Hedge, 2000).

5. THE ROLES OF LISTENING AND ACTIVITIES

In the past times listening was not taken as an important part of learning a new language. It was mostly perceived as the way to present new grammar. From the late 1960s there are recognized three roles of listening, and effort started being spent on listening, too (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

5.1 The role of pre-listening

The role of pre-listening should help learners to get ready for what they are going to hear (Wilson, 2008). Wilson divides the role of pre-listening into three stages: activating schemata, giving a reason to listen and prediction of what learners are going to hear.

Before listening the learners need to know the context; who the speakers are, why they are speaking, etc. Then, for the learner, it would be useful to know the accent of the speaker, pitch (high or low tone) and volume. Another aspect that is good to know is the length of a recording, function and structure, if it is a monologue, dialogue, etc. Listeners should also have some information about the topic. Finally, what listeners need to do, how to finish the task, should be included in pre-listening (Wilson, 2008). According to Richards & Renandya (2002), teaching new vocabulary is also an important part of pre-listening; therefore it will be mentioned in the end of this section.

The first two stages Wilson focuses on are *activating schemata* and *predicting*. There are six ways to activate the schemata and help learners predict what they are going to listen to.

Firstly, it is *brainstorming*. Brainstorming should contain a lot of ideas situated on the problem which is going to be played from the recording so it gives learners some clues what may be included in the listening task. The activities mentioned are ‘shout to the scribe’ which means that learners shout their ideas and the teacher writes them on the board, which saves a lot of time, and ‘poster display’ when students work in groups and create posters with their ideas. After that the posters are stuck on the wall and everybody goes around the class and sees different ideas on the topic given.

Secondly, *visuals* are mentioned as a tool that should help visual learners, for example pictures or diagrams that are connected to the recording. Using pictures is one of the ways to present the topic for listening. Another way, mainly for younger learners, is ‘students as artists’ when after the topic is shared with the class, the learners draw their pictures of how

they imagine the topic given. As a diagram, a Venn diagram can be used, where learners compare two things on the given topic and they try to find differences and similarities.

The next one, *realia* is pointed out as a great aid. For example real photos, maps or guides may help mainly young learners to understand the topic for listening. Maps can be used for conversations about places or directions. Then, brochures can be used when talking about a town or city, and later on, based on this topic, learners can prepare conversations.

After that, *text and words* may be helpful before doing listening; the learners may get the necessary information for completing the given task successfully. This can for example include gap-fill exercises where learners try to find words that fit and rhyme. Key words can also help learners to understand the meaning of the listening. The teacher gives learners some key words and from them the learners try to determine what the story will be about or learners may try to predict what might happen in the story.

Next, *situations* may predict what is going to be said. These situations are sometimes called scripts. Script is mostly a real-life situation which may or may not be familiar to the learners. Sometimes there might be a cultural difference between scripts that are in the recordings and between scripts the learners know from their lives. As an activity the teacher may provide learners with the topic and learners then guess how the dialogue will look like. Another way how to use situations is that learners get headlines and they guess what the story is about or the learners are given a problem and they have to create ideas which would help to solve the problem that they were given.

Lastly, *learners' opinions, ideas and facts* are mentioned to be good ways to get ready to listening. Learners can share their knowledge with the rest of the class and listen to some other opinions before the listening starts. Quotations may be used as an activity in this section. The teacher may provide learners three different quotes on the same topic and then the learners express their opinions and have discussions about the quotes. Speed writing may also be used to know learners' opinion. The teacher sets a topic and gives learners some small time to write. The learners write the most what they know about the topic and then they share their ideas in pairs, in groups with their peers or with the whole class (Wilson, 2008).

The third stage Wilson focuses on is *reasons for listening*. The principles are to make the purpose realistic, to make the goal achievable and to get learners involved. An activity connected with reasons is that the teacher gives learners a title of the topic. Then, learners try

to create one or more questions from the title they were given. These questions bring the reasons for the learners (Wilson, 2008).

As mentioned in the beginning of the pre-listening section, teaching vocabulary is also very important. In the real life it is not possible to explain unknown words to the learners; they have to deal with situations where unknown words occur themselves. On the other hand, before a listening task it might be quite useful for learners when the teacher gives and explains some critical words to the class (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

Before teaching a new word, the teacher should consider whether it is worth the time and whether the word is really that important. New words should be taught in a familiar context and sometimes the learners should look up the words themselves and then put them into sentences to see the meaning. Learners' pronunciation should be checked, too. The goal of teaching new words in pre-listening activities is the words to be recognized in connected speech. Also, the fewer words the teacher is going to teach, the better and easier they are for learners to remember. On the contrary, Wilson points out some negative reasons about teaching new vocabulary. Firstly, it may be hard for learners to recall the newly learned words. Secondary, teaching new vocabulary may make learners focus on the words more than on the meaning of the listening. Lastly, guessing unknown words is a useful skill in real life situations (Wilson, 2008).

There are also some things to avoid during the pre-listening stage. First of all, pre-listening stage should be short and quick, it should not last long. Additionally, not so much information should be given to students. Pre-listening is a stage where some ideas on the topic should be given to learners, not all answers. After that, the students should talk; the teacher should not be speaking the whole time. Finally, the pre-listening activity should be related to the topic of listening (Wilson, 2008).

5.2 The role of while-listening

In the past the approach of listening was very different from the approach today. For example, teachers wanted learners to transcribe the whole speech, etc. These days there is the main focus on understanding the meaning and reacting, to be able to reply to what was said. There are two reasons for using while-listening tasks. The first one is designed to help learners understand what they are going to listen to, such as showing learners what is important about any section. The second reason is to know if students understood or did not understand the speech. This helps teachers to know whether the learners have problems with any part of the

speech or if everything is clear to everybody. There are two types of responses to the tasks. Productive responses contain note-taking, writing answers, correcting errors, etc. On the other hand, recognition contains answering multiple-choice and true/false questions, ticking words or matching and choosing pictures (Wilson, 2008).

Wilson (2008) divides while-listening activities into these categories:

As the first stage, he mentions *listening for gist*. Listening for gist means listening for the main idea – here, a learner should be able to answer questions like ‘What problem are they discussing?’ etc.

Secondly, it is *listening for detail*. Listening for detail happens when learners do not need to know every piece of information that they hear but only one they are focused on, for example what time their bus leaves. Activities like ‘bingo’ belong to this group of whole-listening activities. The teacher writes a list of words on the board and learners choose some and write them down on their paper. When the recording is played and they hear their words they tick them. When all their words are ticked, they scream ‘Bingo!’

Another category is *inferring*. As stated in the previous chapter, inferring is listening to a statement which is not described precisely but the listener can imagine what it means. For example, when “I went to buy vegetables” is said, the listener can imagine the person who went to do the shopping to buy tomatoes, carrots or other kinds of vegetables. Activities connected to inferring might be ‘pause and predict’, in which the listener tries to guess what is going to be said after the teacher stopped the recording, or ‘not her, not him’ when the teacher gives learners ten pictures of different people and slowly describes one person and the learners try to predict which person is the teacher trying to describe.

The next is *participating actively*. An activity concerning this category is for example ‘listen and describe’ where the teacher tells a story and then asks questions so the learners write the answers, such as ‘Once upon a time, there was a house where lived an old man. What did he look like?’- After this, the teacher narrates the whole story again for a better listening experience. Another activity is an interrupted storytelling where learners listen to a story and while listening, they interrupt the teacher and ask him/her questions. Before this activity, it is better to give some grammatical structure to the learners so they know how the questions should be like.

Also, *note-taking* takes part in the while-listening role. This forces learners to write down the most important information only because it is impossible for them to note everything they hear. Some note-taking techniques that might be useful for learners are: choose only what is important, use different words with the same meaning to address some longer expressions, use abbreviations, symbols and numerals, etc. ‘Phone messages’ is one of the activities that might be used with focus on the real note-taking. Learners work in pairs and one student reads a pre-prepared phone message to the second student. Then, the second student shortens it and notes the message down as if it was a phone message.

Next, *dictation* may also be used as a while-listening task. In recent years it is not used that often because it is not a communicative activity and also there is no space for creativity of learners. On the other hand, some teachers say that dictation is a great activity type. One of the activities is called a running dictation. Students work in pairs. There are sheets of paper on the wall out of the classroom. In pairs students decide who will be the runner and who will write. The runner runs and remembers what is written on the sheets and says it to the student writing. After that, they exchange the roles. This activity is a good starter of the lesson.

Lastly, there are the ‘*listen and do*’ activities. For example the game called ‘Simon says’. A teacher or a student is giving commands, such as ‘Simon says sit down!’ and the rest of the class listens to this and does it. If the teacher or student says only ‘sit down’ without saying ‘Simon says’, the learners should not do anything. If they do, they are out of the game (Wilson, 2008).

Ur (1991) points out that it is important for teachers to have many different activities, which are focused on different parts of the listening skill, prepared to be practiced in the class. Also, listening should be practiced very often so the learners are familiar with the variety of activities. Ur divides listening into listening for perception and listening for comprehension (Ur, 1991).

5.3 The role of post-listening

The grammar of the recording is not as important as it was in the past. However, sometimes it is worth emphasizing, mainly when it includes a specific topic that the learners should know. A post-listening activity may be asking learners meanings of the new words that they listened to in the contexts in which they heard them. This should be provided with having the words written on the board and repeating sentences in which they occurred (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

Wilson (2008) divides the post-listening part into nine categories: reflecting, checking and summarizing, discussion, creative responses, critical responses, information exchange, problem-solving, deconstructing the listening text and reconstructing the listening text. Firstly, *reflecting* is an overall activity of what the learners heard. They speak about the difficulty of the recording, if they had problems with accents, speed, etc.

Secondly, *checking and summarizing* is an activity in which learners check if their answers to questions are correct or not. They may do it in pairs or groups. They can also summarize what the recording they heard was about.

Thirdly, *discussion* is an activity in which learners can express their ideas on what they listened to. The teacher can also set up own questions to make them more general and so everybody can participate in the discussion.

An *activity connected to creative responses* may be when teacher asks learners to transfer the text into a different genre. For example – a piece of gossip may be transformed into a tabloid article.

Also, *critical responses* are an activity in which teacher asks some questions, which are connected to the recording, to which there are no right answers and so learners can think critically about what they heard.

Next, *information exchange* is a great activity for learners to work in pairs or groups. For example Jigsaw – an activity in which one student listens to one part of a story whereas the second student listens to another part of the story. Later, they work together to create the whole story.

After that, *solving problems* is one of the post-listening categories. As an activity “solving mysteries” may be used. For example when there is a detective story, learners listen to the recording and try to find out who the killer was, etc.

Deconstructing the listening text is when the teacher wants the learners to listen to grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc. For this cases Wilson (2008) suggests using transcripts.

Lastly, *reconstructing the listening text* can be used in the class. The teacher gives learners some fragments of the text or a text in the abbreviation form. Learners then have to put it together. While working on the text, learners have to take into consideration many aspects such as grammar, vocabulary and discourse of the spoken language (Wilson, 2008).

PRACTICAL PART

6. RESEARCH AND ITS AIM

The aim of the practical part is to find out learners' opinions on learning and developing the listening skill, including their feelings about listening and the types of tasks they practice most in the English lessons.

The research tool of the practical part consists of a questionnaire. The questionnaire has 15 questions and there are two pages that include both open and close-ended questions and it takes around seven minutes to finish it.

The research samples were pupils from sixth and seventh grades of the elementary school from the Czech Republic. In all there were 47 learners.

The questionnaire is based on opinions of the learners listening and listening activities and tasks in the English classes. For objectivity, the questionnaires were given to learners from four different classes taught by two different teachers. The learners filled the questionnaires in during their English lesson in their classrooms in February 2017.

In this paper all the questions from the questionnaire will be demonstrated and every question or statement from the questionnaire will be concluded separately.

Also, in the beginning of the next chapter, before presenting the results of the questionnaires, I will explain why the learners from the sixth and seventh grades were chosen and their level of the listening skill according to CEFR and also the general definition of their personalities will be included.

6.1 Data analysis

The data collected will be shown in the form of charts for the first thirteen questions, and the last two questions will be presented in the form of statements. There will always be results for the sixth and seventh grade separately and the results will sometimes be compared between these two grades. The original questionnaire and a completed questionnaire can be found in the appendices. The questionnaire was presented to the pupils in the Czech language, so to make them understand the questions perfectly. For the purpose of this paper, the questions and answers were translated to the English language by me.

Creating the questionnaire was inspired by Gavora (2000). Gavora (2000) mentions four types of questions: open-ended, close-ended, half closed and scaled questions. All of these types of questions were used in the questionnaire. In the half closed questions, when the “other” option was ticked by the learners, they added their own information which is mentioned under each chart in the results. If in a chart “no answer” option is shown, the question was not answered by the particular amount of learners. In questions number five, six, seven, nine, eleven, twelve and thirteen more choices could be ticked.

7. LISTENING DEFINITIONS OF THE A1 AND A2 LEVEL LEARNERS

The reason why I chose pupils who attend sixth and seventh grades of elementary school is because they are not complete beginners, they are able to communicate at some level and they have some experience with the English language. Also, these learners have already passed the A1 level and their studies should focus on reaching the A2 level. That is the reason why before going to the questions from the questionnaire, I would like to describe the listening definitions of the learners of these two levels, so it is visible what language experience they have already and what experience they are heading to in their near future. Also, I would like to add some basic characteristic of the learners' personalities. Based on this it is easier to imagine the point of view they were filling the questionnaires with.

The Common European Framework of Reference illustrates these listening scales:

Firstly, *overall listening comprehension* is described in the Common European Framework of Reference. At the A1 level the learner should be able to track the speech, if it is slow and clearly spoken with some stops for comprehension. Furthermore, at the A2 level the learner should understand the speech about some particular topic the learner is familiar with if it is spoken clearly and slowly.

Secondly, *understanding conversation between native speakers* takes part in the CEFR. This focus is not described for the A1 level. The A2 level is based on the learners being able to recognize the theme of the discussion, again when it is spoken clearly and slowly.

Next, there is *listening to announcements and instructions*. Instructions told slowly and clearly should be understood by the learners of the A1 level. Also, they should be able to follow simple orientation. The A2 level students should understand the main point of the instructions and announcements. Also, the orientation should be on a higher level, such as getting from one point to another either by walking or by transport.

Last, *listening to audio media and recordings* is not described for the A1 level. For the A2 level, the learners should be able to comprehend the main information from a recording that is not that long, if the learners are familiar with the topic and if it is slowly and clearly pronounced (Council of Europe, 2003).

7.1 Characteristics of the sixth and seventh grades learners

Vágnerová (2000) describes the learners of sixth and seventh grades to be at the pubescent stage. This stage begins at the age of eleven and ends at the age of twenty. At this stage, the learners usually change their thinking, they start to think in an abstract way and also they begin to be independent on their parents, and friends are even more valuable than before to them (Vágnerová, 2000, own translation).

When the learners are at school, they start to think about their future and about the role of the learner. Also at the pubescent stage, the learners study to make their parents and teachers satisfied, not because the learners want to achieve some really good results themselves. The learners do not want to study more than is necessary. Also, at the pubescent stage the learners want to know the reason to learn because something that does not make sense to them they consider hard to study. Next, the learners accept a teacher who knows the topic well and can explain it more than a teacher who is just showing his/her authority to the learners. Therefore, the communication between the learners and teachers is considered important (Vágnerová, 2000, own translation).

8. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As mentioned above, there are 15 questions in the questionnaire and the results of every question will be brought together with the charts or statements connected to the answers given by the learners from sixth and seventh grades of the elementary school in the Czech Republic.

8.1 Question one

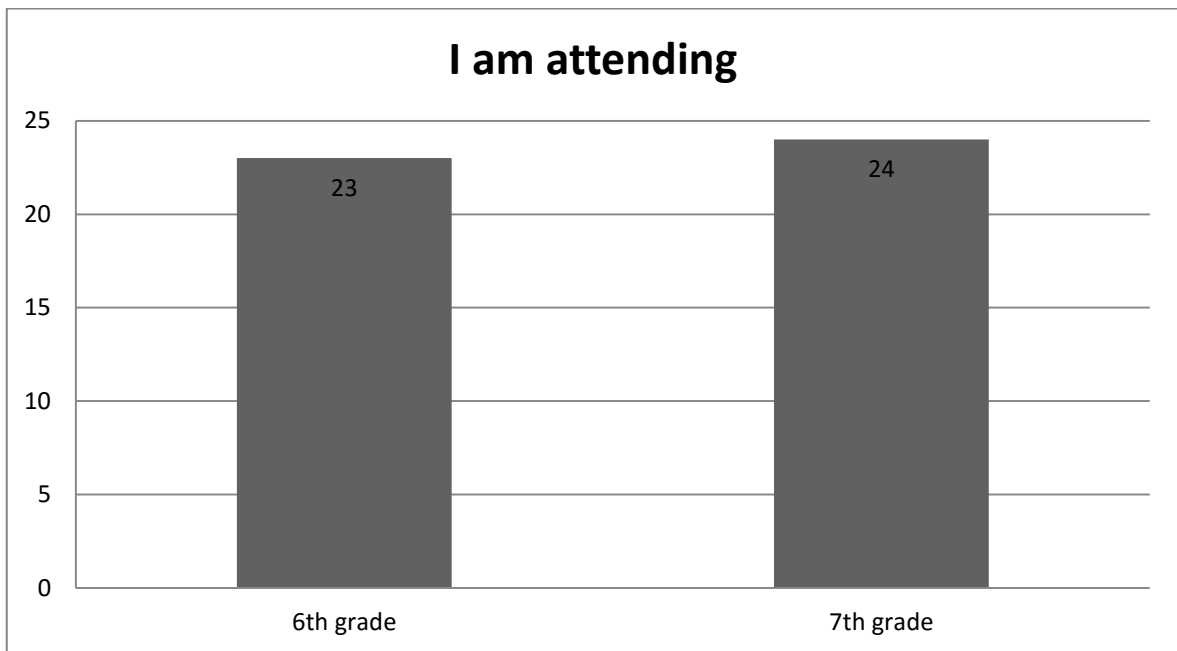


Chart 1 – Class attendance

The first question concerning the grade the learners are in shows that there are 23 pupils from the sixth grade and 24 pupils from the seventh grade. In all, there are 47 pupils attending both classes (sixth and seventh grades). From the chart 1, it is visible that the questionnaires were filled in almost half by sixth graders and half by seventh graders. Based on this number of responses given we cannot consider the results of this research to be applicable to every school or every learner.

According to Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education, the learners of the sixth and seventh grades are in the stage 2 of a foreign language learning, which means by the end of this stage they should have the level A2 acquired (MŠMT, 2016).

8.2 Question two

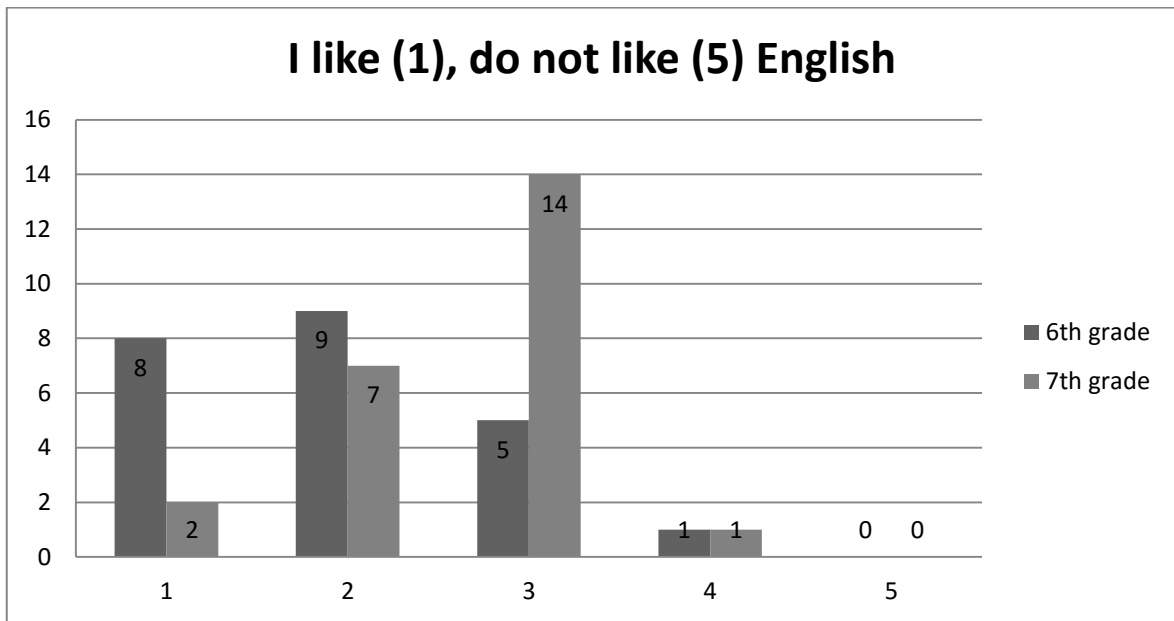


Chart 2 – Learners' feelings towards English

The second question was based on finding learners opinions on English, whether they like it or not on a scale from one to five, where one means they like it and five means they do not like it. From what is shown on the chart 2, we see that most sixth graders like English, they mostly chose one, two and three, where one and two have the most responses. On the other hand the seventh graders chose mostly two and three, where three was chosen by 14 learners which show that they are not sure whether they like or do not like English. None of the pupils chose number five which signifies, that none of them does not like English at all.

8.3 Question three

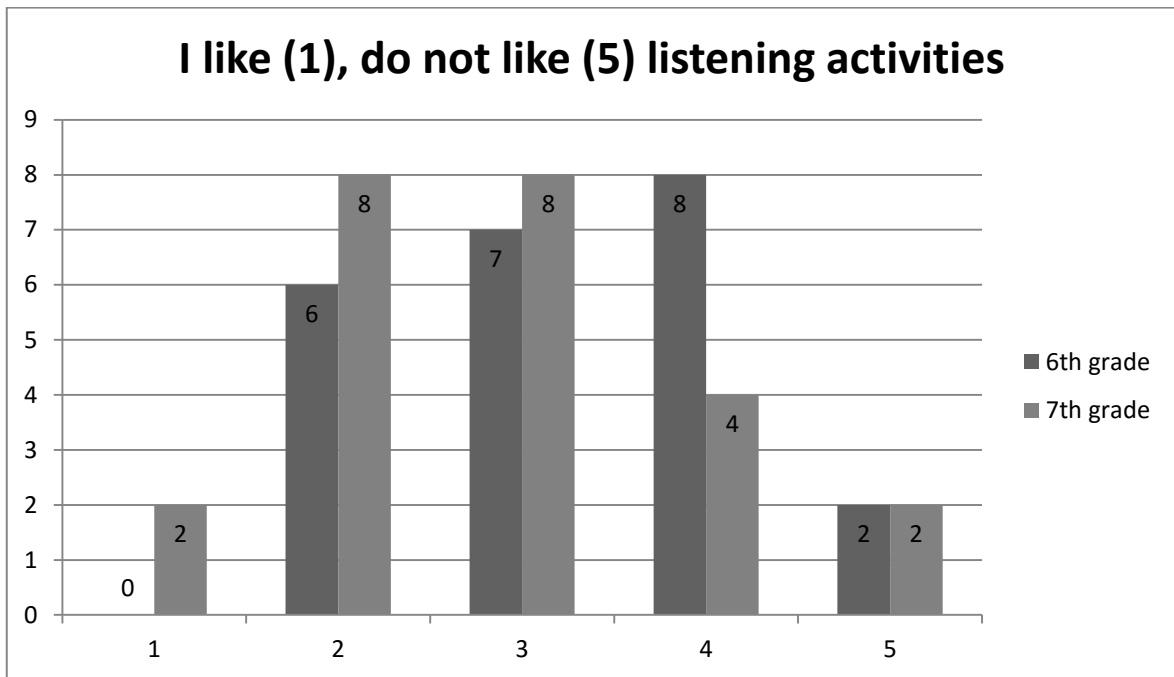


Chart 3 – Learners’ feelings about listening activities

The purpose of the third question was to know pupils’ opinions on listening activities on a scale from one to five. From the chart 3, it is visible that number 1 (I like) and number 5 (I do not like) was barely chosen by the learners. Most of them chose numbers two, three and four which are in the middle of the scale that they could choose from. From this chart it can be said that most of the pupils’ opinions are in the middle of the scale and only minimum of them has an expressed opinion on listening activities. Surprisingly, none of the learners from the sixth grade chose number 1 (I like listening activities). This might be caused by many reasons and factors that will be lately discussed in this paper with particular questions asking these reasons (questions five and six).

8.4 Question four

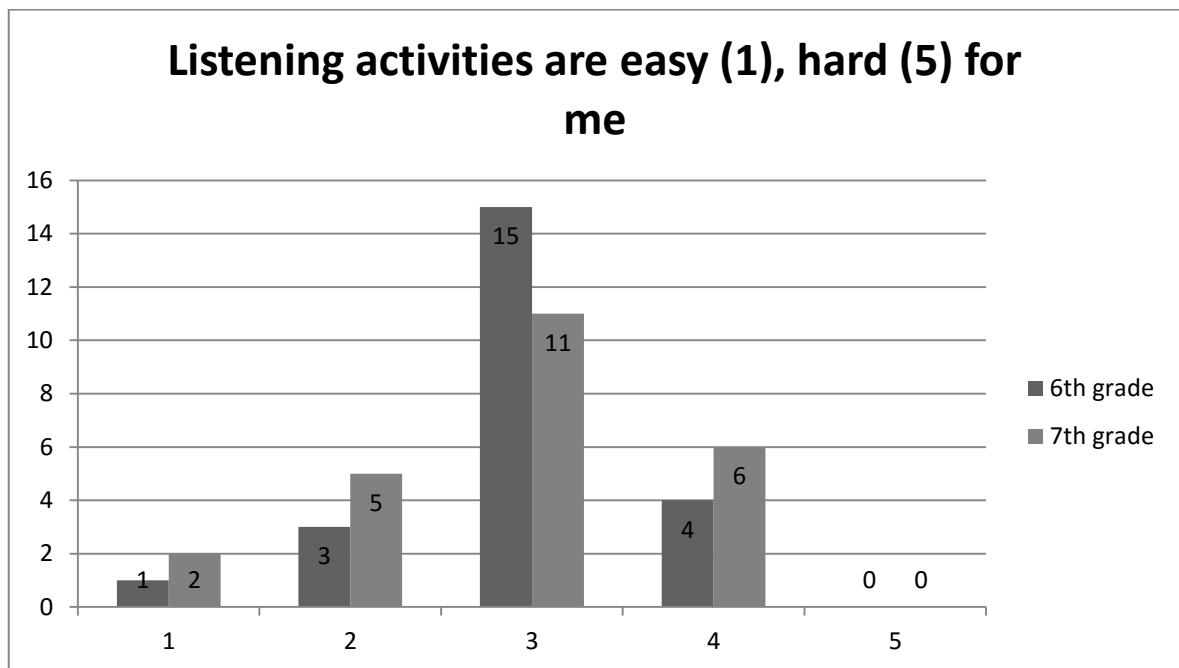


Chart 4 – Learners’ feelings about the difficulty of listening activities

Pupils’ opinion on the difficulty of listening activities was asked in the question number four, where on the scale from 1 to 5, number one meant easy and number five meant hard. None of the learners chose that the listening activities are hard (number 5). Most of the pupils chose the middle way, number three, which can be described as not easy and not hard, something in between. If the learners who chose numbers one and two are counted, they are 11. In the same way, those learners who chose number four are 10. From this number of learners it can be seen that the amount of learners who think listening activities are easier is almost the same as the amount of pupils who think that listening activities are harder.

Some of the learners might have problems with listening activities and might find them difficult because of an accent. Buck (2001) posits that some learners might find listening difficult, because they are not used to listen to a particular accent.

8.5 Question five

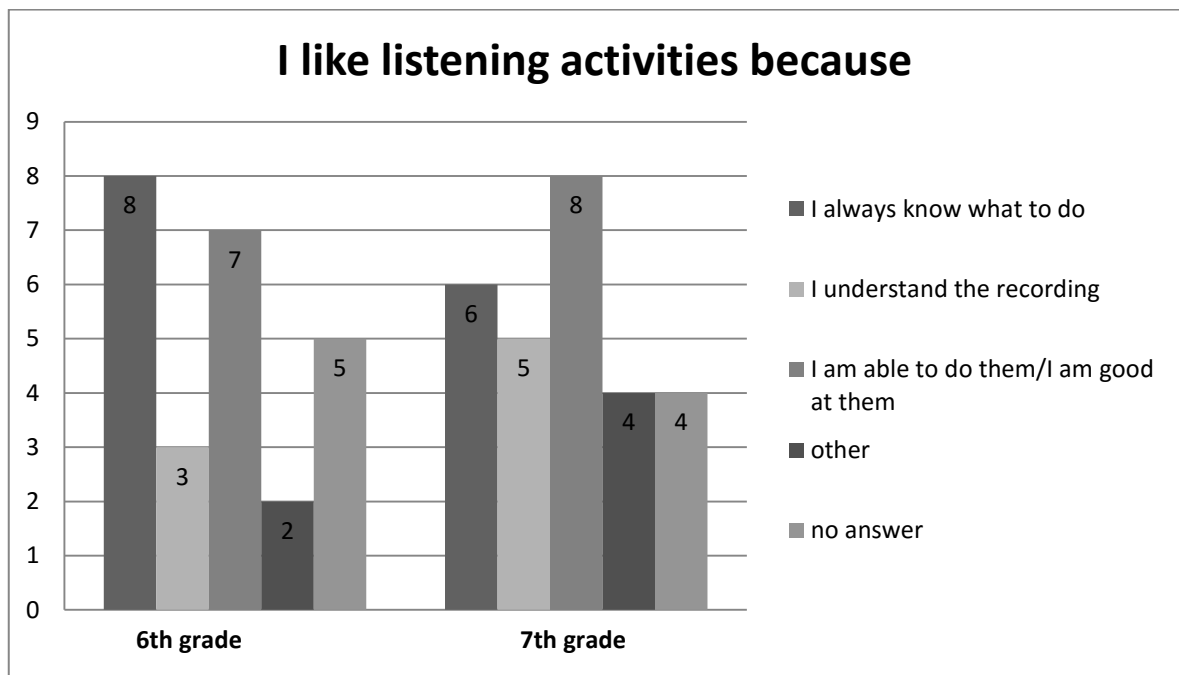


Chart 5 – Positive reasons and attitudes towards listening activities

The fifth question was one of those where the pupils could choose more answers. Most of the learners chose answers “I always know what to do” and “I am able to do them/I am good at them”. Those from the sixth graders who chose “other” commented that they like listening activities because “it is silence in the classroom” (1 response) and “I can learn something”, also one response. From the seventh graders the comments were: “I understand most of the time”, “it is fun”, “we repeat them more times, so it is easier then” and “I try to understand them”. Each of these comments received one response.

Also, it is visible that eight learners chose “I understand the recording”, where 3 responses were from the sixth grade and 5 responses from the seventh grade. This might be because the learners at the seventh grade might be more familiar with practicing listening activities and also their level of English should be higher as they are one year older.

On the other hand, nine pupils did not answer this question, most probably because they do not like listening activities or they do not know why they like it, concerning that in the question number three, four pupils said they do not like listening activities at all.

8.6 Question six

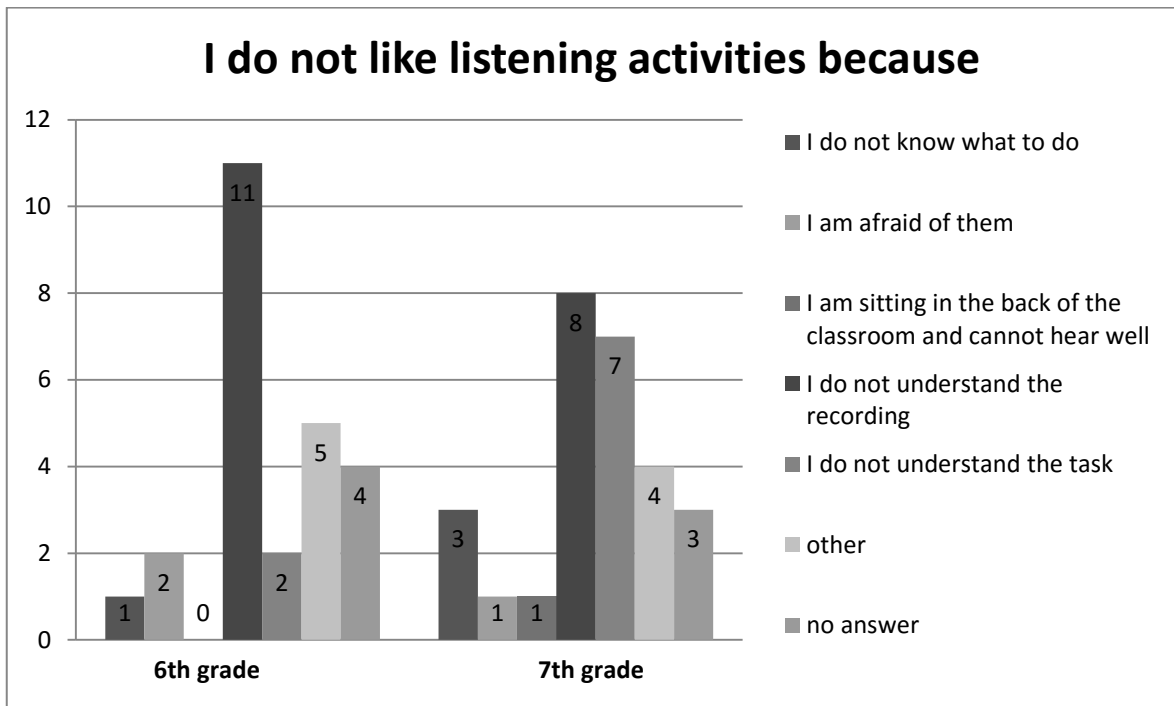


Chart 6 – Negative reasons and attitudes towards listening activities

Negative opinions on listening were asked in the question number six. Also, for this question the pupils could choose more answers. It is visible that both, sixth and seventh graders mostly do not like listening because they do not understand the recording.

According to the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education, these learners should understand a recording if it is pronounced slowly and clearly (MŠMT, 2016). However it seems that the learners are having the biggest problems with this. It might be because the teachers choose too difficult recordings or the listening activities are not practiced in such a way that it is easier for learners to understand the recording and acquire the listening skill.

Additionally, seven of the seventh graders do not understand the task. When ticked the “other” option, the sixth graders commented that they do not like listening activities because they do not have enough time to write because the activities are too fast (4 responses) and they are not fun (1 response). From the seventh graders the answers from “other” were “sometimes I do not understand what is said in the recording”, which got 3 responses and “sometimes they speak fast and sometimes slow”, which received 1 response.

Also, just one pupil attending the seventh grade mentioned that he/she sits in the back of the classroom and cannot hear well. On the other hand, 4 learners from the sixth grade and 3

learners from the seventh grade did not answer this question which most probably means they like listening activities or they were not interested in giving answers with the particular reasons why they do not like listening activities.

8.7 Question seven

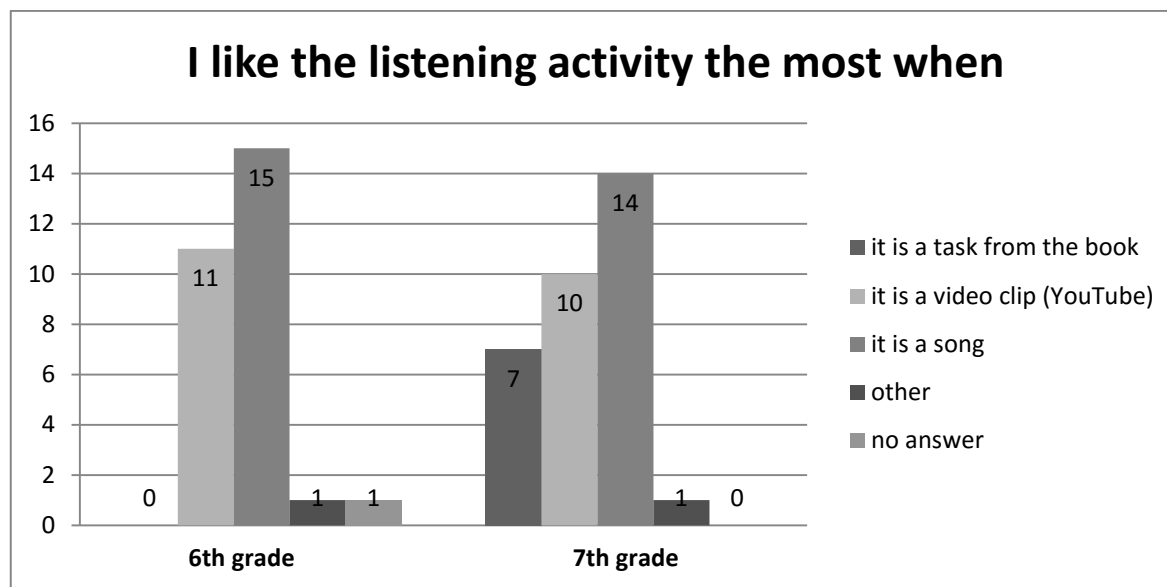


Chart 7 – Most liked listening activities

The next question “I like the listening activity the most when” was again the type of question where the pupils could choose more answers. Most of the learners from both levels like the activity the most when it is a song or a video clip and not surprisingly, these two answers were ticked by the pupils together at the same time.

None of the sixth graders mentioned the task from the book as their favorite. In the “other” option, one of the pupils wrote that he/she likes the listening activity when “it is spoken by the teacher”. This might be because the accent of the teacher is easier to recognize and then understand than the native speaker’s talking.

On the other hand, 7 of the seventh graders chose that they like a listening activity when it is a task from the book. This might mean that the seventh graders are more confident in practicing the types of tasks that come from the book. In the “other” option, one of the seventh graders mentioned that he/she likes the listening activity the most when “it is funny”.

According to Buck (2001), non-verbal signals such as seeing the people talking help learners understand the meaning. That might be the reason why a video clip received higher response

than a task from the book, where the pupils do not see the people talking, because listening while seeing a video clip can make listening easier.

8.8 Question eight

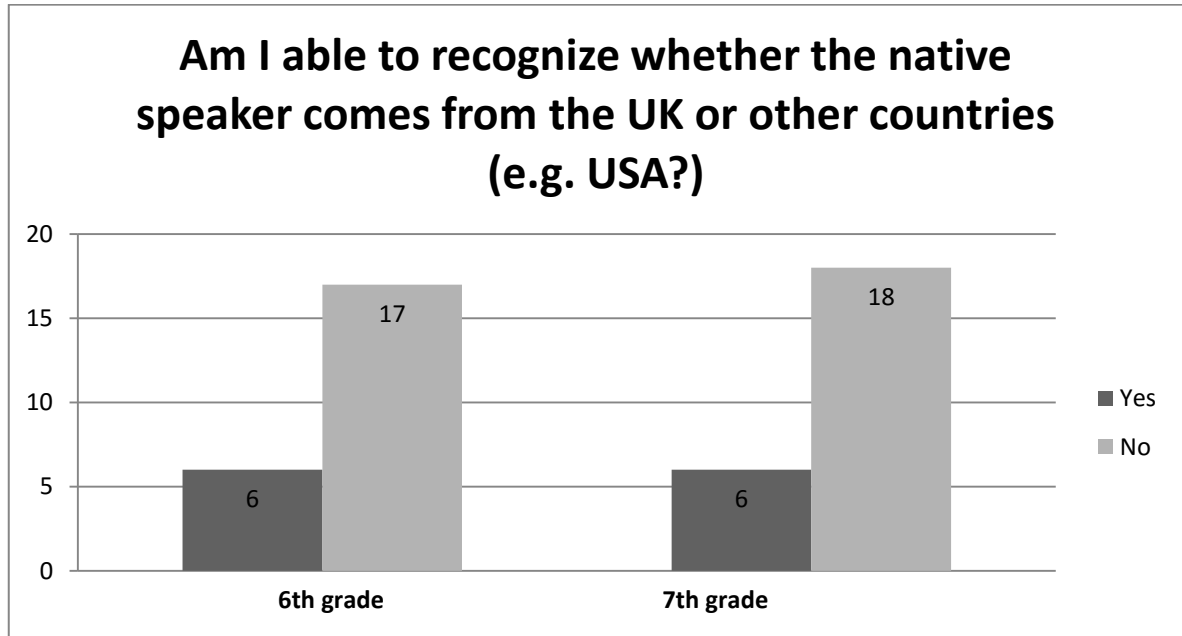


Chart 8 – Recognition of the accent

The next question was asked to find out whether the pupils are able to recognize whether the native speaker comes from the UK or other countries.

From the chart 8 connected to this question, it is visible that 6 pupils from both grades are able to recognize the speaker from the recording. On the other hand, most of the learners would be having problems with recognizing where the speaker comes from. This might be because the learners listen just to one kind of accent or when there is another accent, they are not informed about it and about the differences.

Dialect and accent is mentioned in the CEFR's sociolinguistic competences. Knowing the accent helps the learner recognize the nationality of the speaker (Council of Europe, 2003). Recognizing the accent can help the learners take cognizance of background information or vocabulary connected with the topic of the listening activity.

8.9 Question nine

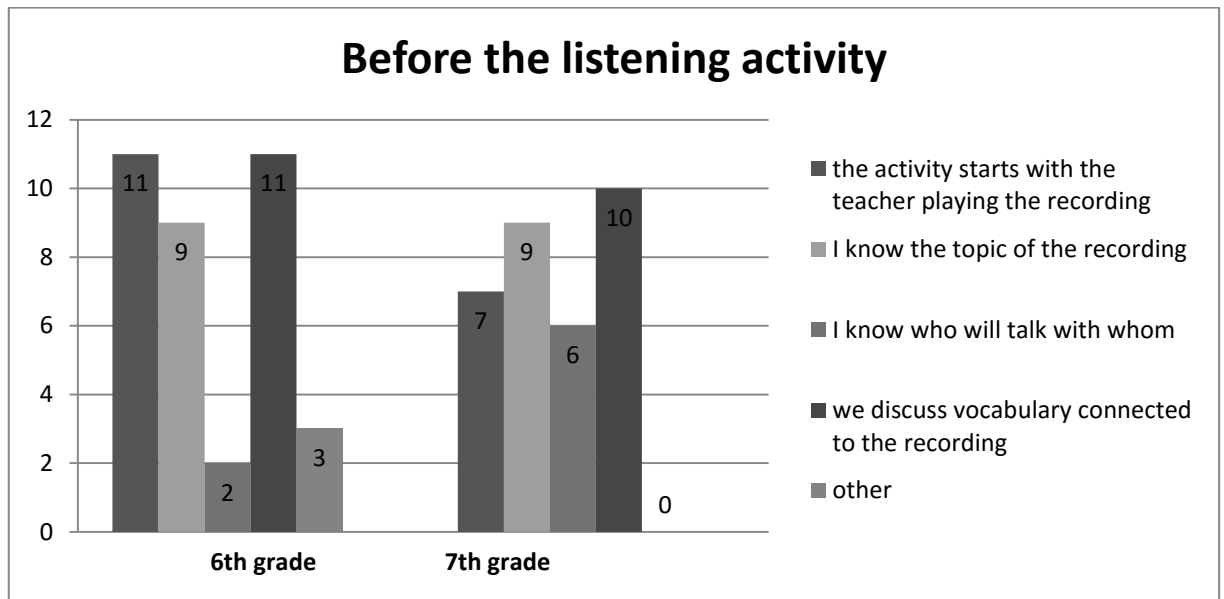


Chart 9 – Pre-listening activities

The ninth question from the questionnaire asked about pre-listening activities. This question was also one of those where the pupils could choose more answers.

The sixth graders mostly chose “the activity starts with the teacher playing the recording” and “we discuss vocabulary connected to the recording”. Nine of the learners also ticked “I know the topic of the recording”. On the other hand, only two of the pupils chose that they know “who will talk with whom”. Next, three of the learners selected the “other” choice, with “the teacher says how to do it”.

Most of the seventh graders ticked that “we discuss vocabulary connected to the recording”, following by nine pupils selecting “I know the topic of the recording”, followed by “the activity starts with the teacher playing the recording” and “I know who will talk with whom”. None of the learners chose the opportunity to add their own experience about the pre-listening stage.

According to the chart 9, it is visible that the biggest part of the post-listening activity in the sixth grade is connected with the lexical competence, which means working with the vocabulary (Council of Europe, 2003).

8.10 Question ten

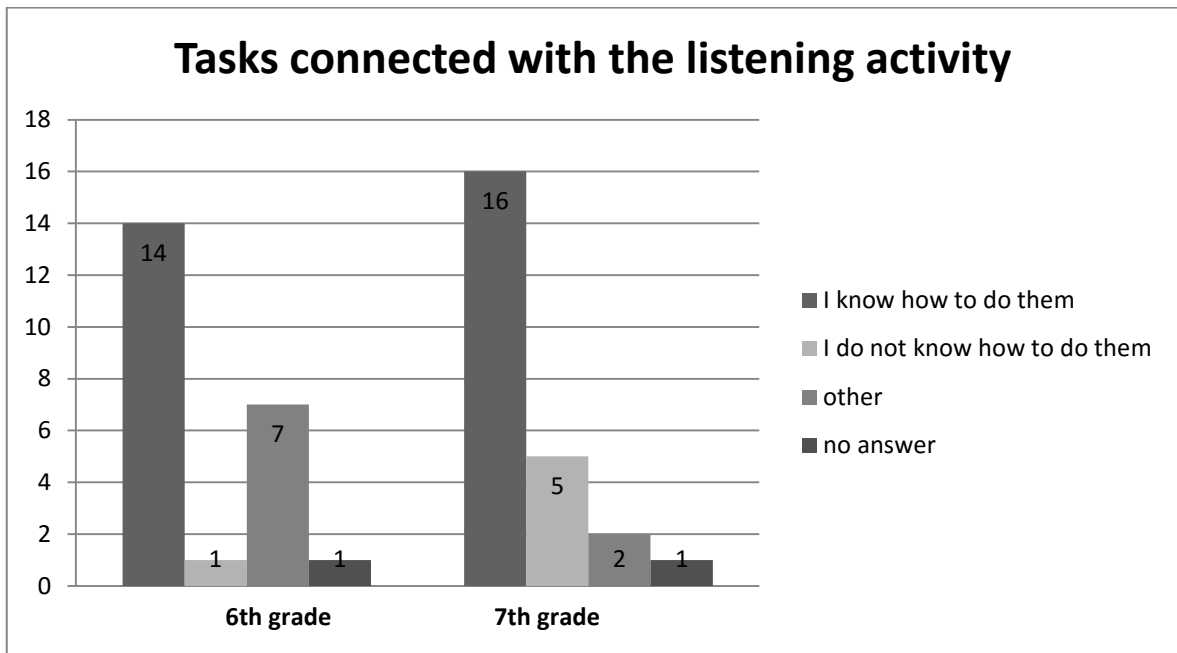


Chart 10 – Understanding of the tasks

The next question asked about the tasks connected with the listening activity, whether the learners know how to do or do not know how to do the tasks, or the learners ticked the “other” folder sharing their own experience.

Most of the sixth graders know how to do the task; only one learner said that he/she does not know how to do them. Also, there were seven comments from the pupils from the sixth grade at the “other” option. Six of them commented that they sometimes know and sometimes do not know how to do the tasks and one mentioned that he/she is unsure about the way the task should be done.

Similarly, most of the seventh graders know how to do the task; five pupils do not know how to do the task and two commented with the “other” option. Their comments were that “sometimes I know/sometimes I do not” (1 response) and “I know how to do the tasks after somebody explains the task to me” (1 response).

Wilson (2008) asserts that it is important for the learners to know how to finish the task, and giving this information to the pupils should be part of pre-listening. According to the chart 10, it is visible that informing the learners about the way the task should be done is successful as this option was chosen mostly by the pupils of both grades.

8.11 Question eleven

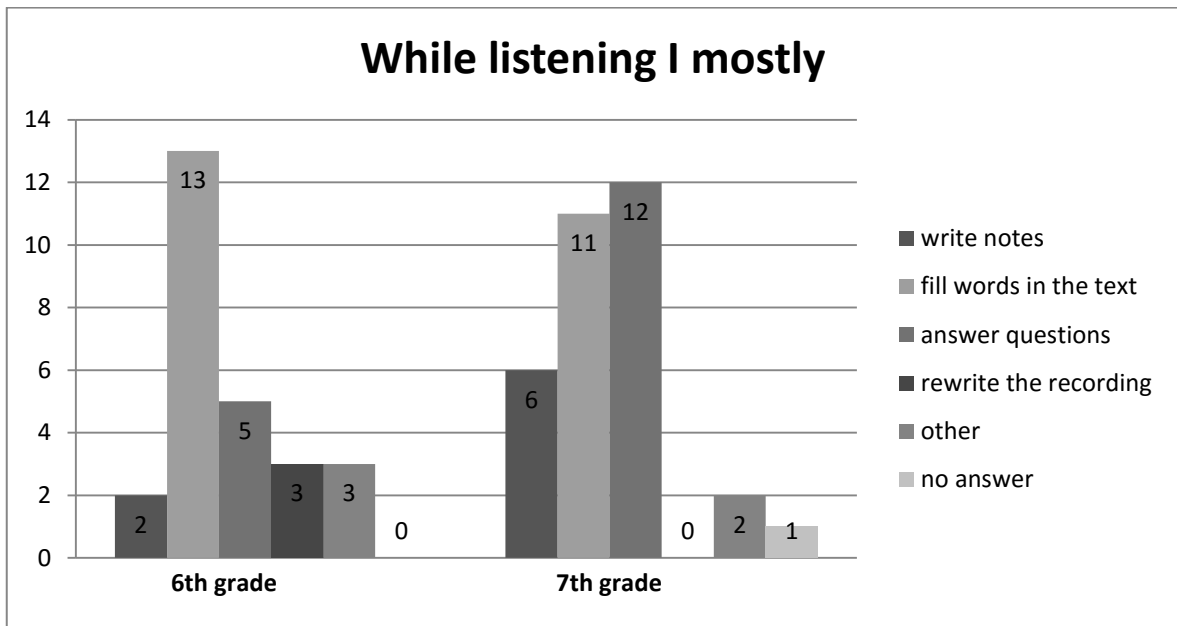


Chart 11 – While-listening activities

The eleventh question is about a while-listening role. The purpose of this question was to find out what activities the pupils do the most while practicing the listening skill. This question could be answered by more alternatives.

From the chart 11, it is visible that the sixth and seventh graders have in common “filling words in the text”. This activity while listening is also the activity the sixth graders do the most.

The seventh graders, except filling words in the text, mostly answer questions connected to the listening. Next, the learners from the seventh grade write notes. Two pupils also chose the “other” answer, where they mentioned that they “try to understand the recording” (1 response) and “I just listen”, which got also 1 response.

According to Wilson (2008), note-taking is one of the while-listening activities. Taking notes should help learners choose only the important information from what they hear to write down, as it is impossible to write everything. From the chart 11, it is visible that this activity is practiced more in the seventh grade.

The three sixth graders who ticked the “other” option commented that they just listen to the recording. Also, three learners chose that they “rewrite the recording”.

8.12 Question twelve

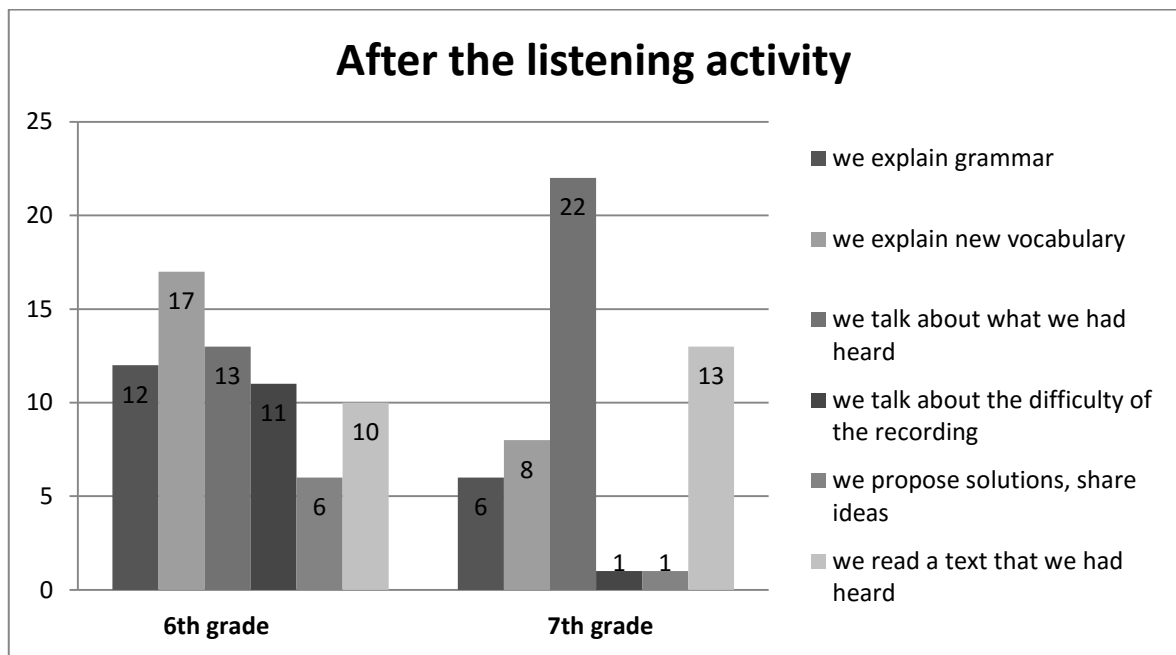


Chart 12 – Post-listening activities

Twelfth question asked the learners about what they do after the listening activity, which means the post-listening stage.

Six of the sixth graders ticked all six activities, however the activity with the most responses is explaining new vocabulary, followed by talking about the recording, explaining grammar, talking about the difficulty of the recording, and reading the text heard. The activity with the least responses is proposing solutions, sharing ideas which got 6 responses from the sixth graders.

Lexical semantics from the CEFR can be found here in explaining new vocabulary (Council of Europe, 2003). As the learners know the information about the recording, the vocabulary can be discussed and the meaning can be brought to the words.

Also, it is noticeable that the *grammatical competence*, which includes explanation of grammar (Council of Europe, 2003) is more practiced in the sixth grade than the seventh grade. This might be because the sixth graders learn new grammar that the seventh graders should know already.

The seventh graders chose as the activity they do the most after listening talking about what they had heard. This activity was chosen by 22 pupils, which mean almost all the pupils who were given the questionnaire. Next, with 13 responses, they read a text that they had heard,

followed by explaining new vocabulary (8 responses) and explaining grammar (6 responses). The least responses, both one, got talking about the difficulty of the recording and proposing solutions, sharing ideas.

A part of this question was the “other” choice, too, but none of the learners from sixth or seventh grades took the opportunity to come up with a different activity than those already mentioned in the question.

8.13 Question thirteen

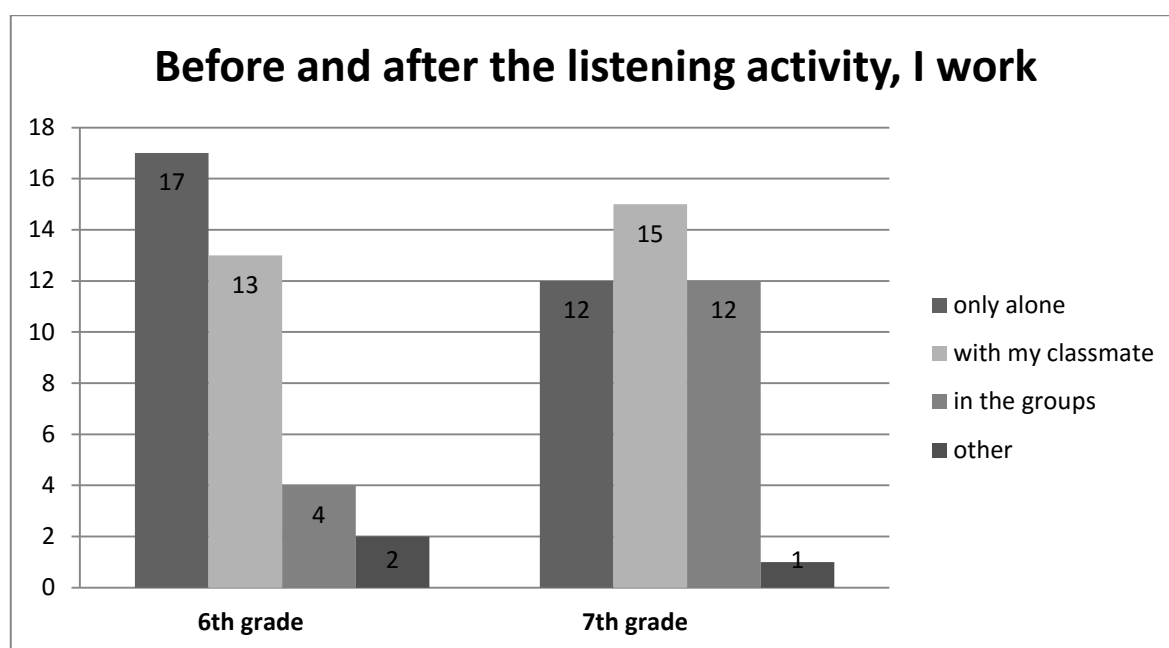


Chart 13 – Form of work

The thirteenth question asked about the pupils’ cooperation before and after the listening activities. In this question more answers could be chosen.

In the sixth grade the learners mostly work alone (17 responses), following by “with my classmate” (13 responses). On the other hand, the option “in the groups” was chosen by 4 students only. Two students chose the “other” option and said “it depends”.

It is visible that in the seventh grade the options “only alone”, “with my classmate” and “in the groups” received very similar amount of responses, where “with my classmate” leads by 3 responses compared to the next two options. One student ticked the “other” option, where he/she mentioned that he/she works with a teacher.

To conclude, it can be said that the *study skills* from CEFR’s general competences (Council of Europe, 2003) which mention the activities connected to the language acquisition together with

pair and group work are more or less used during the English classes during practicing listening in the sixth and seventh grades where the pupils completed the questionnaire.

8.14 Question fourteen

The fourteenth question was an open-ended question which means the learners could write anything they wanted about why they like listening.

The sixth graders wrote their comments as follows: “I learn new vocabulary” (4 responses), “I am good at it” (3), “it is the best way to learn English” (2). The next comments had 1 response each: “I can relax while listening”, “I learn new things, I will understand better in a foreign country and a teacher helps us while doing listening”, “it is a song”, “I can learn the pronunciation”, “the text is interesting”, “and I can listen and work with the text”.

The seventh graders mostly wrote that “it is fun” and “we learn new pronunciation and vocabulary”. These two statements both received 3 responses. The following comments got 1 response each: “I can listen first and then fill in”, “after listening it is easier to remember the vocabulary”, “I can listen and sometimes I understand it”, “it is fast”, “it is silence in the classroom”, “I can rest while listening”, “I am good at it”, “it is easy sometimes”, “it is interesting”, “I try to learn it”, “I can listen to somebody who speaks fluent English” and “it is better than writing to a notebook”.

To sum up, in comparison to the fifth question (chart 5), which was not completely open, in the question fourteen the learners were freer in writing the reasons why they like listening and a lot of students mentioned that they are able to learn through the listening activities. According to CEFR, based on the *language and communication awareness*, it is easier to acquire the language through knowing the way the language works (Council of Europe, 2003). The answers for the question why the learners like listening show that some pupils learn new vocabulary and know the way English works through listening more easily than if they were not practicing the listening skill.

Also, listening activities help the learners acquire *general phonetic awareness and skill* mentioned in CEFR (Council of Europe, 2003) because the focus on pronunciation can help the pupils learn the accent, which some of the learners mentioned in their answers as well.

On the other hand, 8 pupils from the sixth grade and 6 pupils from the seventh grade did not fill this portion of the questionnaire. The reason might be because they do not like listening or they do not have particular reasons why they like listening activities.

8.15 Question fifteen

The fifteenth and at the same time the last question was an open-ended question as well. This time the learners were supposed to write why they do not like listening.

The sixth graders mostly wrote that they do not like listening because “I do not understand the recording” (4 responses), and “I am not good at it”. The next comments received one response each: “I am bored when it is a text”, “they speak fast”, “I do not know some words”, “I need to focus on the text”, “it is hard”, “usually it is too long” and “I do not have enough time to complete the text”.

Most of the seventh graders wrote that they do not understand the recording (13). Two of the learners wrote that they do not understand the task. The following reasons were written only once: “it is long”, “I do not have enough time to complete the text”, “sometimes it is too fast and sometimes it is too slow”.

In conclusion, the answer “I do not understand the recording” was written by most of the learners similarly as they mentioned it in the question number six. Equally important, some new statements appeared in this question and the learners shared their opinions about their negative attitude towards listening.

According to Buck (2001), speech rate might occur as a problem to the learners of English. That might be a reason why some pupils do not like listening and finished the original sentence with “they speak too fast”.

On the other hand, ten learners from the sixth grade and six learners from the seventh grade did not complete this sentence. This might be because they like listening or they do not have particular reasons why they do not like listening.

CONCLUSION

“Tell me and I’ll forget. Teach me and I’ll remember. Involve me and I’ll learn.” – Benjamin Franklin.

Listening is undoubtedly one of the most important and hardest skills to practice in EFL classes. When it comes to the questionnaire and learners’ perspective, it can be said that most of the learners like English, but the listening activities are not liked in the same way as English in general is. The biggest difficulty for the learners seems to be that they do not understand the recording; most of them are having problems with recognizing what is said.

When the pre-listening activities were asked in the questionnaire, most of the responses were that the activity starts with the teacher playing the recording and discussing vocabulary connected to the recording. On the other hand, the important information that the learners should know before the listening starts, mentioned by Wilson (2008), like knowing who will talk with whom, is slightly missing in the classes.

Similarly, the role of post-listening is an important one; however from the chart 12 it is visible that there is lack of proposing solutions and sharing ideas from the learners’ side.

As the reason why some learners do not like listening, they wrote that it is too long or they do not have enough time to complete the tasks. Maybe giving the pupils enough time to finish the work and using shorter recordings would make some of these learners like listening more.

In this paper a lot of activities that may be used in the classes were suggested so listening does not become boring for the learners. It is always important to involve learners to the activities as much as possible so their skills may become more developed and they will feel more comfortable in communicating in the language they learn.

To sum up, listening skill is highly connected with other skills and it is important that every skill is practiced at schools. In my opinion, more activities and different audio materials, such as playing recordings with people talking different accents, should be used during classes so that the learners can become more confident in the listening skill. Also, there should be more emphasis put on the pre-listening activities as these might help learners a lot when comprehending the meaning of what is said.

RESUMÉ

První kapitola bakalářské práce, se zabývá Rámcovým vzdělávacím programem pro základní vzdělávání, který se nachází na státní úrovni. Na základě tohoto rámcového vzdělávacího programu se pak tvoří Školní vzdělávací programy, které si každá škola tvoří sama. Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání zmiňuje klíčové kompetence, do kterých jsou zahrnuty například schopnosti, vědomosti, dovednosti, atd. Z klíčových kompetencí práce zmiňuje komunikativní kompetence, které v Rámcovém vzdělávacím programu vystihují, co by měl být žák schopen dělat po ukončení povinné školní docházky. Jako jednu z věcí, které by měl žák být schopen, Rámcový vzdělávací program zmiňuje např. vyjádření názorů v mluvené a psané formě. Rámcový vzdělávací program také definuje výuku cizího jazyka na základních školách, kde se zmiňuje, že tento program je založen na Společném evropském referenčním rámci pro jazyky. Zároveň Rámcový vzdělávací program upřesňuje, že žák, který dokončí devátou třídu, by měl mít jazykovou úroveň A2. V Rámcovém vzdělávacím programu najdeme očekávané výstupy ze dvou stupňů. První stupeň se týká žáků pátých tříd a druhý stupeň žáků tříd devátých. V obou těchto stupních jsou pak popsány očekávané výstupy řečových dovedností, poslechu s porozuměním, mluvení, čtení s porozuměním a psaní.

Druhá kapitola předkládá informace o Společném evropském referenčním rámci pro jazyky, který slouží jako nástroj při vyučování jazyků v Evropě. Tento referenční rámec také spojuje školní systémy v evropských zemích, které by jinak měly různé vzdělávací systémy nebo jiné označení pro úroveň jazyka žáků. V tomto referenčním rámci nalezneme komunikativní kompetence, ovšem v dané kapitole jsou zmíněni i předchůdci či autoři, kteří definují komunikativní kompetence i jinak než Společný evropský referenční rámec. Například Hymes, Canale a Swain. Nebo dále Bachman a Palmer, kteří rozdělují komunikační znalosti (nepoužívají slovo kompetence) na organizační znalost, pragmatickou znalost a strategickou kompetenci.

Třetí kapitola bakalářské práce se zabývá kompetencemi studenta ve Společném evropském referenčním rámci. Zde jsou popsány dva druhy kompetencí: obecné kompetence a komunikativní jazykové kompetence. Obecné kompetence obsahují základ právě pro komunikativní jazykové kompetence (například místní kulturu, tradice, zvyky, jídlo a jiné). Z tohoto důvodu jsou v práci zmíněny oba druhy kompetencí. Práce popisuje komunikativní kompetence právě ze Společného evropského referenčního rámce. A to proto, že tento

referenční rámec je jedním z dokumentů používaných v českém školství při výuce anglického jazyka.

První část třetí kapitoly se věnuje obecným kompetencím. První z těchto obecných kompetencí jsou deklarativní znalosti, které se následně dělí na znalosti okolního světa, sociokulturní znalosti, a interkulturální způsobilost. Tyto deklarativní znalosti ve své podstatě zahrnují základní informace o světě, informace o místě, kultuře a společnosti, kde se daným jazykem, v tomto případě jazykem anglickým, komunikuje. Dále se v této kapitole nachází dovednosti a praktické znalosti. Ty se dělí na praktické dovednosti a praktické znalosti, a dále na interkulturální dovednosti a praktické znalosti. Další část kapitoly zmiňuje „existenciální“ kompetence, které se zabývají individualitou studenta (například motivací a osobními faktory). Poslední část, kde jsou zahrnuty obecné kompetence, přidává informace o schopnosti učit se. Tato schopnost zahrnuje jazykový cit a komunikační povědomí, obecné fonetické povědomí a dovednosti, studijní dovednosti a nakonec i heuristické dovednosti.

Druhá část této kapitoly uvádí přímo komunikativní jazykové kompetence, které jsou pro naučení se jazyka klíčové. Tyto jazykové kompetence se dělí na lingvistické kompetence, sociolingvistické kompetence a pragmatické kompetence. Lingvistické kompetence můžeme dále klasifikovat na lexikální, gramatickou, sémantickou, fonologickou, ortografickou a ortoepickou kompetenci. Lexikální kompetence se zabývá lexikálními jednotkami (ustálenými výrazy a jednoslovnými pojmenováními) a gramatickými slovy. Gramatická kompetence zahrnuje správné použití gramatiky. Význam a uspořádání slov jsou sémantické kompetence. Fonologická kompetence se zabývá schopností porozumět a produkovat např. zvukové jednotky. Ortografická kompetence se věnuje porozumění a psaní symbolů. Poslední, ortoepická kompetence, zmiňuje schopnost správné výslovnosti textů. Následně se sociolingvistické kompetence dělí na lingvistické markery sociálních vztahů (což znamená např. vědět, jaké oslovení použít v daný okamžik); řečové zdvořilostní normy (rozdělují se na pozitivní zdvořilost, negativní zdvořilost, vhodné užívání výrazů a nezdvořilost); výrazy lidové moudrosti (např. idiomy); rozdíly ve funkčních stylech a nakonec dialekt a přízvuk. Poslední z jazykových kompetencí, pragmatická kompetence, se orientuje na porozumění sdělení z různých pohledů. Diskursní kompetence se zabývá organizací a strukturou sdělení. Funkční kompetence se týká sdělení, která jsou použita ke komunikační funkci. Poslední z pragmatických kompetencí je kompetence výstavby textu.

Čtvrtá kapitola se zaměřuje již přímo na poslech a jeho problematiku. Nejdříve je vymezena definice poslechu, kde je zmíněno, že při poslechu student přijme data a z nich je schopen porozumět významu. Poslech je rozdělen do různých kategorií, podle toho, čemu se student snaží porozumět. Tyto kategorie zahrnují poslech pro zachycení celkového tématu (tzn. o čem daný člověk mluví); následně poslech, při kterém se posluchač snaží zjistit specifickou informaci; poslech, kdy se posluchač zaměřuje na vše (například při hledání chyb); a poslech, při kterém se posluchač snaží zjistit pocity mluvčího. Následně jsou v kapitole předloženy potenciální problémy při poslechu, které zahrnují problémy při slyšení nového přízvuku, rychlost mluvy, atd. Do čtvrté kapitoly je také zahrnuta role neverbálních znaků (např. gest a řeči těla). Dále je také v bakalářské práci připomenut rozdíl mezi učením se jazyka jako cizího (foreign) a jako druhého (second). Učení se jazyka jako cizího znamená, že se jedinec jazyk učí v zemi, kde se většinou nedá použít v každodenním životě (tj. zpravidla se používá pouze ve škole). Učením se jazyka jako druhého nazýváme učení se jazyka v zemi, kde se tímto učeným jazykem dá domluvit prakticky všude. Následně je v této práci zmíněn přístup zdola nahoru a shora dolů (tj. bottom- up and top-down approaches). Přístup zdola nahoru znamená, že se posluchač snaží porozumět i těm nejmenším jednotkám textu. Přístup shora dolů se odehrává, když se posluchač snaží porozumět dané nahrávce obecně. Neznamená to ovšem, že se tyto dva přístupy vylučují, ba naopak se spolu doplňují.

Pátá kapitola, a tedy závěr teoretické části bakalářské práce, se zabývá rolami poslechu a aktivitami s nimi spojenými. Jako první je práce zaměřena na aktivity, které se odehrávají před poslechem. Čas před začátkem samotného poslechu je velmi důležitým pro posluchače, jelikož se může dozvědět téma poslechu, kdo s kým bude mluvit a další informace, které mu mohou pomoci nahrávce lépe porozumět. Jako aktivita spojená s fází před poslechem může být brainstorming - ten může přimět posluchače ke spojení si různých informací k tématu poslechu ještě před samotným poslechem. Také je důležité vědět, že fáze před poslechem by měla být krátká a rychlá. Následuje fáze při poslechu. V této fázi se může jednat například o poslech pro získání určité informace. K tomuto typu poslechové činnosti může být nápomocná hra Bingo! - posluchači čekají přímo na danou informaci, která se objeví v průběhu poslechu. Poslední fází je fáze po poslechu. Aktivita spojená s touto fází je např. diskuse, kdy posluchači diskutují o tom, co slyšeli, případně sdílí své nápady a navrhnou řešení.

Praktická část bakalářské práce začíná šestou kapitolou, kde je vysvětlen cíl odborné práce. Cílem práce bylo zjistit, jaký mají žáci šestých a sedmých tříd základní školy názory a pocity

ohledně poslechu a rozvíjení poslechové dovednosti a také jaké aktivity se v hodinách anglického jazyka procvičují nejvíce. Tyto aspekty byly zjištěny pomocí dotazníku, který vyplnilo 47 žáků šestých a sedmých tříd základní školy v České republice. Dotazník obsahoval 15 otázek a jeho vyplnění trvalo přibližně 7 minut. Dotazník vyplnili žáci z různých tříd, které učí různí učitelé, aby byla zajištěna objektivita práce. Práce prezentuje výsledky dotazníku především ve formě grafů. Prázdný i vyplněný dotazník je přiložen v příloze bakalářské práce. Typy otázek byly jak uzavřené, tak polootevřené, škálové či otevřené. Na některé otázky se mohlo odpovídat více možnostmi.

Ještě před uveřejnění otázek a výsledků dotazníků, v sedmé kapitole práce jsou zmíněny definice žáků s jazykovou úrovní A1 a A2. Profily těchto žáků mají souvislost s výsledky a pomohou zjistit, na jaké úrovni žáci jsou. Následně kapitola uvádí i charakteristické znaky těchto žáků s psychologického hlediska. Zmiňuje se zde, že tito žáci většinou chtějí znát důvod, proč se učit (protože učit se něco, v čem nevidí význam, jim může připadat obtížné).

V poslední a osmé kapitole, která uzavírá praktickou část, jsou vypsány a analyzovány výsledky dotazníků. Každá otázka je zobrazena a popsána samostatně. První otázka se ptá, kterou třídu žáci navštěvují. Další se již informuje o tom, jestli žáci mají či nemají rádi anglický jazyk, přičemž z výsledků vyplývá, že většina žáků má angličtinu rádo. Následující otázky už se zabývají tím, zda žáci mají či nemají rádi poslechové aktivity. Zde je vidno, že většina žáků má neutrální postoj k poslechovým aktivitám, na škále od jedné do pěti nejvíce odpovědí získala čísla 2, 3 a 4 (kdy 1 - mám rád a 5 - nemám rád), podobně jako otázka ohledně obtížnosti poslechových aktivit (kdy 1 – lehká a 5 – těžká), kde nejvíce žáků zakroužkovalo číslo 3. Následující dvě otázky se ptaly na důvody, proč žáci mají/nemají rádi poslechové aktivity. Ti, kteří je mají rádi, odpověděli, že vždy vědí, co mají dělat a jsou v poslechových aktivitách dobří. Naopak ti, kteří je nemají rádi, zmínili, že nerozumí nahrávce. Dále, žáci mají nejraději poslechové aktivity, pokud jsou ve formě písničky či videoklipu. Na otázku ohledně přízvuku většina dotázaných žáků odpověděla, že nepozná, kdy je mluvčí z Velké Británie či jiné země (např. USA). Tato situace může být způsobena tím, že se na různé přízvuky neklade při hodinách angličtiny důraz. Další otázky se věnovaly fázi před poslechem, kdy poslech začíná puštěním nahrávky nebo procvičením slovíček. V této fázi také většina žáků ví, jak daný úkol udělat. Při poslechu žáci nejvíce doplňují do textu či odpovídají na otázky. Po poslechu si zase vysvětlují slovíčka nebo hovoří o tom, co slyšeli. Dotázaní žáci také pracují samostatně, se spolužákem nebo ve skupinách. Z výsledků dotazníku vyplývá, že formy práce s poslechem se střídají. Poslední dvě otázky napověděly,

že někteří dotázaní žáci mají rádi poslech, protože se naučí nová slovíčka. Naopak někteří žáci poslech rádi nemají, protože nerozumí nahrávce.

Závěrem bych chtěla podotknout, že termíny použité v kapitole diskutující Společný evropský referenční rámec byly zmíněny za pomoci českého překladu tohoto dokumentu (Univerzita Palackého v Olomouci, 2001). A dále bych doplnila, že osoby v resumé práce jsou zmíněny v rodě mužském. Je tím však míněn i ženský rod. Tento způsob popisu slouží pouze pro přehlednost resumé práce.

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APPENDICES

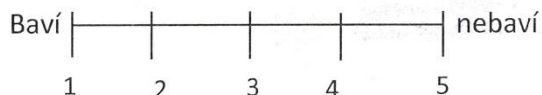
Appendix A: <i>Blank questionnaire</i>	65
Appendix B: <i>Completed questionnaire</i>	67

Appendix A: Blank questionnaire

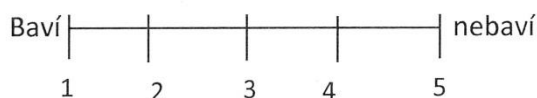
Dotazníkové šetření za účelem zjištění postoje žáků k poslechovým cvičením při hodinách AJ

Na otázky se odpovídám takto . Pokud se spletu, čtvereček zakroužkuji a označím jinou odpověď. Na otázky, které jsou označeny * lze odpovídat více možnostmi.

- 1) Chodím do 6. třídy 7. třídy
2) Angličtina mě (zakroužkuj jedno číslo od 1 baví do 5 nebaví)



- 3) Poslechová cvičení mě (zakroužkuj jedno číslo od 1 baví do 5 nebaví)



- 4) Poslechová cvičení jsou pro mě (zakroužkuj jedno číslo od 1 lehká do 5 těžká)



- 5) *Poslechová cvičení mám rád/a, protože: vždy vím, co mám dělat
 rozumím nahrávce
 je zvládám/daří se mi
 jiné: _____
- 6) *Poslechová cvičení nemám rád/a, protože: nevím, co mám dělat
 bojím se jich, protože _____
 sedím vzadu a špatně slyším
 nerozumím nahrávce
 nerozumím úkolu
 jiné: _____
- 7) *Poslechová cvičení mám nejraději, když:
 je to cvičení z učebnice
 je to videoklip (např. YouTube)
 je to písnička
 jiné: _____
- 8) Dokáží rozlišit, zda je rodilý mluvčí z Velké Británie nebo jiné země, např. Spojených Států Amerických? ANO NE

9) *Před poslechovým cvičením:

- cvičení začíná tím, že učitel/ka pustí nahrávku
- znám téma poslechu
- vím, kdo s kým bude mluvit
- probíráme slovíčka k tématu poslechu
- jiné: _____

10) Úkoly spojené s poslechovým cvičením:

- vím, jak mám udělat
- nevím, jak mám udělat
- jiné: _____

11) *Při poslechovém cvičení nejvíce:

- si dělám poznámky
- doplňuji slova do textu
- odpovídám na otázky
- přepisuji nahrávku
- jiné: _____

12) *Po poslechovém cvičení:

- si vysvětlujeme gramatiku
- si vysvětlujeme nová slovíčka
- mluvíme o tom, co jsme slyšeli
- povídáme si o tom, zda nahrávka byla lehká nebo těžká
- navrhujeme řešení, sdílíme nápady
- čteme text, který jsme slyšeli
- jiné: _____

13) *Před a po poslechovém cvičení pracuji:

- pouze sám
- se spolužákem
- ve skupinkách
- jiné: _____

14) Poslech mě baví,

protože _____

15) Poslech mě nebaví,

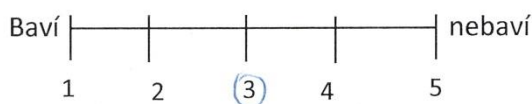
protože _____

Appendix B: Completed questionnaire

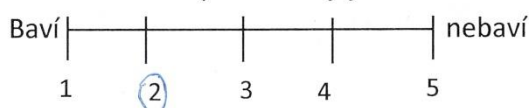
Dotazníkové šetření za účelem zjištění postoje žáků k poslechovým cvičením při hodinách AJ

Na otázky se odpovídám takto . Pokud se spletu, čtvereček zakroužkuji a označím jinou odpověď. Na otázky, které jsou označeny * lze odpovídat více možnostmi.

- 1) Chodím do 6. třídy 7. třídy
2) Angličtina mě (zakroužkuji jedno číslo od 1 baví do 5 nebaví)



- 3) Poslechová cvičení mě (zakroužkuji jedno číslo od 1 baví do 5 nebaví)



- 4) Poslechová cvičení jsou pro mě (zakroužkuji jedno číslo od 1 lehká do 5 těžká)



- 5) *Poslechová cvičení mám rád/a, protože: vždy vím, co mám dělat
 rozumím nahrávce
 je zvládám/daří se mi
 jiné: *protože se jí snažím pochopit*
- 6) *Poslechová cvičení nemám rád/a, protože: nevím, co mám dělat
 bojím se jich, protože _____
 sedím vzadu a špatně slyším
 nerozumím nahrávce
 nerozumím úkolu
 jiné: _____
- 7) *Poslechová cvičení mám nejraději, když:
 je to cvičení z učebnice
 je to videoklip (např. YouTube)
 je to písnička
 jiné: _____
- 8) Dokáží rozlišit, zda je rodilý mluvčí z Velké Británie nebo jiné země, např. Spojených Států Amerických? ANO NE

9) *Před poslechovým cvičením:

- cvičení začíná tím, že učitel/ka pustí nahrávku
- znám téma poslechu
- vím, kdo s kým bude mluvit
- probíráme slovíčka k tématu poslechu
- jiné: _____

10) Úkoly spojené s poslechovým cvičením:

- vím, jak mám udělat
- nevím, jak mám udělat
- jiné: vím, jak udělat až mi ho někdo vysvětlí když tomu nerozumím

11) *Při poslechovém cvičení nejvíce:

- si dělám poznámky
- doplňuji slova do textu
- odpovídám na otázky
- přepisuji nahrávku
- jiné: snáším se jí rozumět

12) *Po poslechovém cvičení:

- si vysvětlujeme gramatiku
- si vysvětlujeme nová slovíčka
- mluvíme o tom, co jsme slyšeli
- povídáme si o tom, zda nahrávka byla lehká nebo těžká
- navrhuje řešení, sdílíme nápady
- čteme text, který jsme slyšeli
- jiné: _____

13) *Před a po poslechovém cvičení pracuji:

- pouze sám
- se spolužákem
- ve skupinkách
- jiné: _____

14) Poslech mě baví,

protože se ho snaží rozumět

15) Poslech mě nebaví,

protože mně nikdy nerozumím