

University of Pardubice

Faculty of Arts and Philosophy

The Development of the Language Skill of Listening Comprehension

Drahuše Škodová

Bachelor Thesis

2021

Univerzita Pardubice
Fakulta filozofická
Akademický rok: 2019/2020

ZADÁNÍ BAKALÁŘSKÉ PRÁCE (projektu, uměleckého díla, uměleckého výkonu)

Jméno a příjmení: **Drahuše Škodová, MBA**
Osobní číslo: **H18085**
Studijní program: **B7507 Specializace v pedagogice**
Studijní obor: **Anglický jazyk – specializace v pedagogice**
Téma práce: **Rozvoj řečové dovednosti poslechu s porozuměním**
Zadávací katedra: **Katedra anglistiky a amerikanistiky**

Zásady pro vypracování

Studentka se bude ve své bakalářské práci zabývat rozvojem dovednosti poslechu s porozuměním v anglickém jazyce na základní škole. V teoretické části práce zasadí zkoumanou problematiku do širších souvislostí z pohledu obecného cíle výuky anglického jazyka, tedy rozvoje komunikační kompetence. Dále bude diskutovat jednotlivé aspekty této receptivní dovednosti a cíle a principy jejího rozvoje u vybrané skupiny žáků. V praktické části pak bude studentka na základě kritérií vycházejících z teoretické části prostřednictvím pozorování zjišťovat, zda a jakým způsobem podporují učitelé u žáků na základní škole rozvoj řečové dovednosti poslechu s porozuměním.

Rozsah pracovní zprávy:
Rozsah grafických prací:
Forma zpracování bakalářské práce: **tištěná/elektronická**
Jazyk zpracování: **Angličtina**

Seznam doporučené literatury:

- Brown, H. Douglas. 2014. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. London: Pearson Education.
- Celce-Murcia, Marianne, Marguerite Ann Snow, and Donna M. Brinton. 2013. *Teaching English as a Second of Foreign language*. Mason: Cengage Learning, Inc.
- Gavora, Peter. 2010. *Úvod do pedagogického výzkumu*. Brno: Paido.
- Gover, Rodger, Diane Philips, and Steve Walt. 1995. *Teaching Practice Handbook*. Heinemann.
- Harmer, Jeremy. 2001. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. London: Longman.
- Hendrich, J. a kol. 1988. *Didaktika cizích jazyků*. Praha: SPN.
- Hinkel, Eli. 2011. *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning*. New York: Routledge.
- Kollmannová, Ludmila. 2003. *Jak porozumět cizí řeči: teorie a praxe poslechu s porozuměním v angličtině*. Voznice: Leda.
- Mendelsohn, David. 1994. *Learning to Listen: A Strategy Based Approach for the Second Language Learner*. San Diego: Dominie Press Inc.
- Pelikán, Jiří. 1998. *Základy empirického výzkumu pedagogických jevů*. Praha: Karolinum.
- Richards, Jack. 2004. *Developing Tactics for Listening*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Richards, Jack. 2004. *Expanding Tactics for Listening*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Rost, Michael. 2017. *Listening in Language Learning*. New York: Routledge.
- Scrivener, Jim. 2011. *Learning Teaching*. London: MacMillan Education.
- Ur, Penny. 2012. *A Course in English Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wilson, J. 2008. *How to Teach Listening*. London: Pearson Education.

Vedoucí bakalářské práce: **Mgr. Helena Zitková, Ph.D.**
Katedra anglistiky a amerikanistiky

Datum zadání bakalářské práce: **30. dubna 2020**
Termín odevzdání bakalářské práce: **31. března 2021**

doc. Mgr. Jiří Kubeš, Ph.D.
děkan

Mgr. Olga Roebuck, Ph.D.
vedoucí katedry

Prohlašuji:

Tuto práci jsem vypracovala samostatně. Veškeré literární prameny a informace, které jsem v práci využila, jsou uvedeny v seznamu použité literatury.

Byla jsem seznámena s tím, že se na moji práci vztahují práva a povinnosti vyplývající ze zákona č. 121/2000 Sb., o právu autorském, o právech souvisejících s právem autorským a o změně některých zákonů (autorský zákon), ve znění pozdějších předpisů, zejména se skutečností, že Univerzita Pardubice má právo na uzavření licenční smlouvy o užití této práce jako školního díla podle § 60 odst. 1 autorského zákona, a s tím, že pokud dojde k užití této práce mnou nebo bude poskytnuta licence o užití jinému subjektu, je Univerzita Pardubice oprávněna ode mne požadovat přiměřený příspěvek na úhradu nákladů, které na vytvoření díla vynaložila, a to podle okolností až do jejich skutečné výše.

Beru na vědomí, že v souladu s § 47b zákona č. 111/1998 Sb., o vysokých školách a o změně a doplnění dalších zákonů (zákon o vysokých školách), ve znění pozdějších předpisů, a směrnicí Univerzity Pardubice č.7/2019 Pravidla pro odevzdávání, zveřejňování a formální úpravu závěrečných prací, ve znění pozdějších dodatků, bude práce zveřejněna prostřednictvím Digitální knihovny Univerzity Pardubice.

V Pardubicích dne 25.3.2021

Drahuše Škodová

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor, Mgr. Helena Zitková, Ph.D., for her willingness to help, for her guidance and valuable comments on the content of the thesis.

Furthermore, I would like to thank the English teacher who enabled me to carry out my research in her classroom.

ANNOTATION

This bachelor thesis deals with the development of listening comprehension. The theoretical part presents the goals of English language teaching and learning stemming from curricular documents. Subsequently, it describes the goals of listening comprehension. Furthermore, the thesis defines the language skill of listening comprehension as a process. Lastly, the principles and aspects of teaching listening comprehension are discussed. These serve as a source for the list of criteria on which base the research was carried out. The practical part of the thesis aims to determine whether, and in which way the development of listening comprehension is being promoted by teachers in the lower secondary school.

KEYWORDS

listening comprehension, goals of English language teaching and learning, principles and aspects of teaching listening comprehension

ANOTACE

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá rozvojem řečové dovednosti poslechu s porozuměním. Teoretická část nejprve představuje cíle výuky anglického jazyka, které vyplývají z kurikulárních dokumentů. Poté následují konkrétní cíle pro poslech s porozuměním. Dále je řečová dovednost poslech s porozuměním definována jako proces. Na závěr jsou uvedeny principy a aspekty výuky poslechu s porozuměním. Ty slouží jako podklad pro seznam kritérií, na jehož základě je prováděn výzkum. Praktická část této práce má za cíl zjistit, zda a jakým způsobem podporují učitelé u žáků na základní škole rozvoj řečové dovednosti poslechu s porozuměním.

KLÍČOVÁ SLOVA

poslech s porozuměním, cíle výuky anglického jazyka, principy a aspekty výuky anglického jazyka

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION.....	10
-------------------	----

THEORETICAL PART

1 CURRICULAR DOCUMENTS AS THE BASIS FOR SETTING THE GOALS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING	12
1.1 The goals of English language teaching and learning in the Framework Education Programme for Basic Education.....	12
1.2 The goals of English language teaching and learning in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages	12
1.3 The goals of developing listening comprehension in FEP BE	13
1.4 The goals of developing listening comprehension in CEFR	13
2 COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE COMPETENCE	15
2.1 Linguistic competences	15
2.2 Sociolinguistic competences	15
2.3 Pragmatic competences	15
3 LISTENING COMPREHENSION	16
3.1 Listening – its role in daily communication	16
3.2 Listening versus hearing	16
3.3 Listening as a receptive skill	17
3.4 Listening as an active process	17
3.4.1 Top-down and bottom-up process	18
3.5 Definition of listening comprehension	19
4 PRINCIPLES AND ASPECTS OF TEACHING LISTENING COMPREHENSION	19
4.1 Real-life listening	19
4.2 Authentic and non-authentic listening	20
4.3 Types of listening	22
4.4 Listening text types	23
4.5 Extensive and intensive listening	24
4.5.1. The length of the intensive listening	25
4.6 Listening sources	25
4.7 The phases of a listening lesson and types of activities	27

4.7.1	Pre-listening phase	28
4.7.1.1	Clear instructions	28
4.7.1.2	Pre-listening phase activities	28
4.7.1.3	Pre-teaching vocabulary	28
4.7.2	While-listening phase	29
4.7.2.1	While-listening phase activities	29
4.7.3	Post-listening phase	30
4.7.3.1	Post-listening phase activities	30
THE SUMMARY OF THE THEORETICAL PART		31
 PRACTICAL PART		
5	CONDUCTING RESEARCH	32
5.1	The aim of the research	32
5.2	Research questions	32
5.3	The research sample	32
5.4	Methodology	32
5.5	Participants of the research	34
5.6	List of criteria for evaluation	34
5.7	Analysis of individual listening passages	35
5.7.1	Listening passage 1	35
5.7.2	Listening passage 2	36
5.7.3	Listening passage 3	36
5.7.4	Listening passage 4	37
5.7.5	Listening passage 5	38
5.7.6	Listening passage 6	39
5.7.7	Listening passage 7	39
5.8	Overall evaluation of listening passages	40
5.9	Final evaluation	43
CONCLUSION		45
RESUMÉ		47
BIBLIOGRAPHY		50
APPENDICES		53

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEFR - Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

ELT - English Language Teaching

FEP BE - Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education

FLT - Foreign Language Teaching

SLA – Second Language Acquisition

INTRODUCTION

Today, English is a common lingua franca across the globe. It refers to the use of English as common means of communication for speakers of different native languages. Accordingly, high attention should be paid to English language teaching to enable students to communicate successfully in the global world.

Listening is a part of four foundational language skills along with speaking, reading, and writing. Each of the skills needs a different approach to how it is tutored and practised, as well as it needs different levels of effort to be made to master the skill. Developing listening skills is an essential part of foreign language acquisition. It is not only for the sake of listening itself, but also for speaking. It might not seem that appealing at first, but in language acquisition, listening and speaking constitute the two elements of oral language, when listening is prior to speaking. Therefore, indirectly developing listening skills contributes to the development of speaking skills. Moreover, listening plays very important role in communication in people's daily lives. Scholars from the University of Missouri say that people spend about forty five percent of time by listening, supposing that is nearly half of time spent by communication in some form. By saying that listening is the most used language skill in daily communication, and the fact that listening indirectly develops speaking, it might be concluded that developing listening skills should play an important role in English language teaching.

On the other hand, as frequently described in English language teaching literature, listening is the hardest language skill to master. This was confirmed by the teacher who enabled me to conduct my research in her English lessons. When mentioning listening as an object of my research, she was rather worried when saying that listening is the most feared activity in unit tests as students rarely succeed. That leads me to an idea that any research in listening may contribute to support teachers and learners in their efforts to improve on the acquisition of listening skills.

This bachelor thesis deals with the development of listening comprehension in English language teaching and learning. The thesis is divided into two parts: the theoretical and practical part. The theoretical part introduces the goals of English language teaching and learning. It describes listening as a receptive skill and simultaneously as an active process. The processes that are in place while listening are discussed too. After that, the principles and aspects of teaching listening comprehension are introduced. This includes, for example, the types of listening, the types of listening texts, and sources. Furthermore, real-life listening and the authenticity of

listening texts are explained. Last, three phases of listening are introduced along with listening activities. The aim of the practical part is to determine whether and in which way the development of listening comprehension is being promoted by teachers in the lower secondary school. After describing the methodology of my research, the list of criteria is set out. Based on this list, seven listening passages are being analysed. Subsequently, the overall evaluation of research findings is presented.

THEORETICAL PART

1 CURRICULAR DOCUMENTS AS THE BASIS FOR SETTING THE GOALS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

1.1 The goals of English language teaching and learning in the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education

To perform any progress in new skill acquisition, it is vital to set objectives in such an activity. The same applies for foreign language acquisition. In the Czech Republic, the goals of foreign language teaching are determined in a document called Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education (FEP BE). This document was issued by Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MŠMT). FEP BE is a curricular document which defines the policy and principles in basic education. Accordingly, the principles for foreign language teaching are defined too.

1.2 The goals of English language teaching and learning in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

Simultaneously, the goals of English language teaching are specified in a document called Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). These goals serve as a base for FEP BE. Literally, it is stated in FEP BE that “the requirements for foreign language education are based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, which describes the levels of foreign language mastering” (MŠMT 2017, 17). CEFR was issued by the Council of Europe and it defines international standards as a guideline for foreign language learning, teaching, and assessment. Specifically, CEFR provides expected outcomes at six broad levels of ability, starting with A1, continuing with A2, B1, B2, C1, and ending with the highest C1 level. Each of the levels determines the expected outcomes in four language skills – listening, reading, writing, and speaking.

1.3 The goals of developing listening comprehension in FEP BE

Since this thesis focuses on developing listening comprehension at lower secondary school, this part is dealing with description of the corresponding level in listening comprehension. Taking into consideration the corresponding level of ability, FEP BE sets the A2 level as a target for students leaving the ninth grade of lower secondary school (MŠMT 2017, 17).

The expected outcomes for A2 level in listening comprehension are as follows:

Learner can understand information in simple listening texts provided speech is slowly and clearly articulated.

Learner can understand simple and clearly articulated speech or conversation which relates to adopted topics.

(MŠMT 2017, 26)

Not only the expected outcomes are stated in FEP BE, but also topics the learner should be familiarized with. These topics are comprised of home, family, housing, school, free time, culture, sport, healthcare, feelings, and moods, eating habits, weather, countryside and town, shopping and fashion, society and its problems, career choice, media and modern technologies, travelling, basic facts on relevant foreign language speaking countries (MŠMT 2017, 27). It is evident that the variety of topics is wide which might be associated with the range of situations students may find themselves in, in daily life.

1.4 The goals of developing listening comprehension in CEFR

In CEFR, listening is divided in the following five categories for which the illustrative scales are provided:

- Overall listening comprehension
- Understanding interaction between native speakers
- Listening as a member of a live audience
- Listening to announcements and instructions
- Listening to audio media and recordings

(CEFR 2001, 65)

It might be assumed that the first category is the most vital as it is perceived from the general point of view. In terms of learner's ability, A2 level in overall listening comprehension is specified as follows:

Learner can understand enough to be able to meet needs of a concrete type provided speech is clearly and slowly articulated.

Learner can understand phrases and expressions related to areas of most immediate priority (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment) provided speech is clearly and slowly articulated.

(CEFR 2001, 66)

It is important to specify the category listening to audio media and recordings too, as this has been so far the most common source of listening comprehension practice in the educational environment (Underwood 1989, 94). Accordingly, this category is defined in the following way:

Learner can understand and extract the essential information from short, recorded passages dealing with predictable everyday matters which are delivered slowly and clearly.

(CEFR 2001, 68)

It is also appropriate to elaborate the category listening to announcements and instructions:

Learner can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements.
Can understand simple directions relating to how to get from X to Y, by foot or public transport.

(CEFR 2001, 67)

Similar to FEP BE, CEFR also specifies the topics. Thematic categories include personal identification, house and home, daily life, free time, entertainment, travel, relations with other people, health and body care, education, shopping, food and drink, services, places, language, weather (CEFR 2001, 52). To sum up, both curricular documents CEFR (on the European level) and FEP BE (for the Czech Republic specifically) provide specific goals for listening comprehension. These goals are set in terms of expected outcomes as well as in terms of the topics the learners should be familiarized with.

2 COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE COMPETENCE

Not only are the expected outcomes at six levels of ability and thematic categories specified in CEFR, but also the communicative competence in foreign language acquisition is defined. At first, it is advisable to characterize the term competence from general point of view. In CEFR, it is described as “the sum of knowledge, skills, and characteristics that allow a person to perform action” (CEFR 2001, 9). Specifically, communicative language competences are characterized as “those which empower a person to act using specifically linguistic means” (CEFR 2001, 9). In other words, these competences refer to a learner’s ability to use language to communicate. Communicative language competence has several component parts which are organized in three main categories: linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic. Each of these made up of knowledge, aptitudes, and skills (CEFR 2001, 13).

2.1 Linguistic competences

Linguistic competences comprise the knowledge and skills related to lexis, phonology, and syntax. Namely, it incorporates six categories: lexical competence, grammatical competence, semantic competence, phonological competence, Orthographic competence and Orthoepic competence (CEFR 2001, 109). For each of this category, there are many subcategories which would make a long list. To summarize linguistic competence, it governs general knowledge of language and language resource one may have.

2.2 Sociolinguistic competences

On the other hand, sociolinguistic competences refer to the knowledge and skills involved in functional use of language in a social context. The categories of socio-linguistic competence treated in CEFR are as follows: linguistic markers of social relations; politeness conventions; expressions of folk wisdom; register differences; dialect and accent (CEFR 2001, 118). These competences lead us to consider social and intercultural parameters and the way in which they influence the language use.

2.3 Pragmatic competences

In contrast to sociolinguistic competences, pragmatic competences are concerned with the user/learner’s knowledge of the principles according to which messages are:

- a) organised, structured and arranged ('discourse competence')
- b) used to perform communicative functions ('functional competence')
- c) sequenced according to interactional and transactional schemata ('design competence')

(CEFR 2001, 123)

As the category of discourse competence refers to sentence arrangement in sequence to produce coherent stretches of language and functional competence "is concerned with the use of spoken discourse and written texts in communication for particular functional purposes" (CEFR 2001, 125), it is clear that pragmatic competence governs the usage of linguistic means for achieving particular communicative goals.

To conclude, not only the lexical, grammatical and syntax knowledge is crucial in ELT, but also the knowledge of social parameters influencing the language. The ability to produce a coherent span of language is an essential element too. In other words, based on CEFR, it is vital to develop linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse competences in order to communicate in foreign languages. As stated in chapter one, perceiving FEP BE refers to CEFR in terms of a foreign language acquisition's requirements, the scope of communicative competence is valid in the Czech educational system too (MŠMT 2017, 17).

3 LISTENING COMPREHENSION

3.1 Listening – its role in daily communication

Since listening is one of the language skills along with speaking, writing, and reading, it is vital to demonstrate the role of listening in daily communication. Scholars from the University of Missouri say that "many of us spend 70 to 80 percent of our waking hours in some form of communication. Of that time, we spend about 9 percent writing, 16 percent reading, 30 percent speaking, and 45 percent listening" (University of Missouri, 1993). That is to say that listening plays a very important role in communication in people's daily lives and thus it is worth of the attention.

3.2 Listening versus hearing

At first glance, it might appear that listening is an easy skill to master. This may result from the confusion of the words hearing and listening. Javid explains the difference between hearing and listening by saying that "hearing is the physical ability to perceive sound in the peripheral

auditory system while listening is a cognitive task that takes concentration and attention to gain an understanding of the meanings from the sound” (Hearing insider, 2015). To illustrate, in a daily-life environment, while having lunch in a restaurant, one can hear much noise in the background – guests’ dialogues, the clatter of plates, the clash of cutlery - but, once somebody utters our name, the attention goes voluntary that way and listening is underway. Underwood (1989, 1) explains listening in a similar way, she claims “listening is the activity of paying attention to and trying to get meaning from something we hear.” Evidently, hearing includes recognition of sounds, whereas while listening one performs conscious attention to the message.

3.3 Listening as a receptive skill

In ELT literature, it is commonly used the division of four language skills into two types: receptive and productive skills. Whilst reading and listening are reckoned as receptive skills, writing and speaking are marked as productive skills (Harmer 2007, 265), (Scrivener, 249). As listening is a part of receptive skills, it is advisable to explain it in detail. Harmer (2007, 265) perceives receptive skills as skills where meaning is extracted from the discourse. CEFR also defines receptive skills, in fact in much broader way and depicting a reception as an action that “involves receiving and processing input, activating what are thought to be appropriate schemata in order to build up a representation of the meaning being expressed and a hypothesis as to the communicative intention behind it” (CEFR 2018,54). On the other hand, as the name implies, productive skills represented by speaking and writing are the skills where language is being produced (Harmer 2007, 265).

3.4 Listening as an active process

Since receptive skills include receiving and processing input while no language is being produced, listening is often viewed as a passive skill. This proposition is also affirmed by Harmer (2007, 265) when saying that it would be useful to examine the traditional view that receptive skills are somehow passive. His argument is that listening also demands considerable language activation as “we cannot access meaning unless our brains are fully engaged with the texts we are interacting with” (Harmer 2007, 265). Richards and Burns (2012, ix) add that “listening involves both active response to the communicative situation and ongoing interpretation by the listener.” Wilson (2008, 21) even considers listening as an extremely active process where activities such as guessing, predicting, inferring, criticising, and interpreting are carried out.

Likewise, in CEFR (2001, 90), listening is perceived as a four-step process; the following actions are carried out by the listener: perceiving the utterance, identifying the linguistic message, understanding the message, and interpreting the message. It might be assumed that in addition to listening being an active process, listening is a complex process too. To conclude, all above arguments prove that listening is an active and complex process as an immense effort is made to catch the message.

3.4.1 Top-down and bottom-up process

Perceiving listening as an active and complex process, it is vital to examine specific comprehension strategies which are under way while listening. Two different processes are activated so that the learners understand the message. One is top-down process, and the other is bottom-up process. In the top-down process, learners use their background knowledge to predict content (Wilson 2008, 15). As Richards and Burns (2012, 13) explain, background knowledge we have, the familiarity with the topic and the structure of the listening are factors included in a top-down processing. Hedge (2002, 232) points out that top-down listening “infers meaning from contextual clues and from making links between the spoken message various types of prior knowledge which listeners hold inside their heads.” She continues saying that prior knowledge has been termed as schematic knowledge and depends on personal perception as it varies according to the prior knowledge each individual has set in mind for a particular situation (2002, 232). To illustrate, while listening to a passage about New York, a collocation Big Apple can be heard. A person who has never been to New York will activate totally different prior knowledge in mind than someone who has, for example lived there for some time. This is to say that prior knowledge is an individual case and comprehension relies on what is set up in mind even before we listen. On the other hand, in the bottom-up part of the listening process, learners employ their knowledge of language to try to comprehend the meaning (Hedge 2002, 230). To convey the meaning, the process of decoding of the smallest units (phonemes and syllables) is in place (Wilson 2008, 15). Scrivener (2011, 257) compares this process to “building up a wall from the individual bricks” when the sounds are built up into a word, words are built up into phrases, etc. At the same time, to build up these components into the utterance, the knowledge of vocabulary, grammar and syntax is vital to understand the text (Richards and Burns 2012, 7). It is important to point out that these processes do not function independently. On the contrary, as Wilson (2008, 15) claims, when we listen, we use both processes simultaneously.

However, there can be a disbalance between them, as Richards and Burns (2012, 13) point out, it depends on the type of activity we do with a text in order to practice more or less on top-down or bottom-up listening. To conclude, while listening, not only the knowledge of language (such as grammar, syntax, phonology, etc.) is utilized, but also individual's background knowledge and familiarity with the topic. In other words, listening comprehension encompasses the multiple processes involved in understanding and making sense of spoken language.

3.5 Definition of listening comprehension

Listening comprehension is defined by Rost (2002, 53) as “the first-goal of listening, the highest priority of the listener.” In other words, listening comprehension is a purpose of listening. Nevertheless, in ELT literature, both listening comprehension and listening are used as synonyms for the activity of paying attention to the message and trying to comprehend it. Therefore, these terms will be used interchangeably in this thesis.

4 PRINCIPLES AND ASPECTS OF TEACHING LISTENING COMPREHENSION

4.1 Real-life listening

In chapter one, the goals of English language teaching and learning deriving from curricular documents were discussed. In this part, it may be useful to discuss the main goal of teaching listening from the perspective of a process itself. If the aim is to enable learners to succeed in listening situations in daily life, real-life listening simulation is the way. Ur (2012, 102) agrees to this point by saying that “the main goal of teaching listening is to enable our students eventually to cope with the natural listening situations that they are most likely to encounter in real life.” Since real-life use of language is a vague term, thus needs to be defined.

Among others, Ur provides the following characteristics of real-life listening:

- the speech is typically in informal, colloquial style
 - the speech is usually improvised, not written beforehand to be read aloud
 - the speaker is usually present, face to face interactions (except for being on the telephone or listening to the radio)
 - the listener has a rough idea of topic he is going to deal with
- (Ur 2012, 101-102)

Since informal spoken discourse has various compelling features, it is vital to elaborate further. Ur (2012, 103-105) states that informal discourse is usually broken into short phrases as in conversations people take turns and speak in short chunks. Also, the pronunciation differs when compared to formal discourse. In informal speech, the words are not pronounced as clearly as prescribed in a dictionary. Vocabulary has different representation in formal and informal speech too. Moreover, not all grammatical rules are necessarily followed in informal speech. Redundancy in informal speech cannot be neglected as the speaker usually says much more than needed to communicate the message. At last, facial expressions and body language help a lot in understanding the message - this is relevant to spoken discourse represented by a speaker who is physically present or shown on a video recording. To conclude, real-life listening has its characteristic features – it imitates the natural listening situations learners will encounter in real life. To function satisfactorily in the daily-life situations, the listeners need to be able to understand what is said. In other words, developing listening skills through real-life content will enable them to succeed in natural listening situations.

4.2 Authentic and non-authentic listening

Discussing the features of real-life speech, it might be useful to refer to the authenticity of listening texts. Underwood (1989, 98) describes authentic text as a text “which is produced in response to real life communicative needs rather than as an imitation of real-life communicative needs” (1989, 98). For example, TV talk is authentic if it really is a TV talk from the present TV programme, but if the TV talk was produced for the purpose of language teaching, it is a non-authentic talk. In other words, the materials which were not originally designed for a purpose of teaching listening are considered to be authentic materials (Wilson 2008, 30). It follows that the term non-authentic is the very opposite of the authentic.

Moreover, the differentiation is not given by the purpose of material use only, but there are certain characteristics of authentic and non-authentic listening texts. Since dialogue is the content of listening texts, Wilson affirms listening text as a dialogue. Moreover, he is using the term scripted to refer to non-authentic dialogues. Therefore, the terms scripted and non-authentic will be used interchangeably in this thesis.

To specify the characteristics, Wilson states the following features of authentic dialogues:

- overlaps and interruptions between speakers
- normal rate of speech delivery
- relatively unstructured language
- incomplete sentences, with false starts, hesitation, etc.
- background noise and voices
- natural stops and starts that reflect the speaker's train of thoughts and the listener's ongoing response
- loosely packed information, padded out with fillers

(Wilson 2008, 30).

Scripted dialogues are characterized as follows:

- little overlap between speakers
- slower (maybe monotonous) delivery
- structured language, more like written English
- complete sentences
- no background noise
- artificial stops and starts that reflect an idealised version of communication (in which misunderstandings, false starts, etc never occur)

(Wilson 2008, 30).

It is obvious that non-authentic dialogues have nothing so common with real-life listening situations. Perceiving real-life listening is the goal of teaching listening, the authenticity of listening materials is very important. On the other hand, non-authentic materials should not be simply rejected, they serve its purpose too. Scripted materials, for example, provide substantial practice for listening texts in international language exams. In addition, to understand TV news or official statements, scripted materials function as a good source for practicing. Richards and Burns (2012, 23) add that scripted materials have an irreplaceable role at early stages, when students are getting used to the sounds of the language. Nevertheless, they remark that while being helpful at early stages, the usage of scripted materials solely will not bring the required amount of progress to understand the language as it is spoken beyond the classroom (Richards and Burns 2012, 23). Furthermore, students primarily working with scripted dialogues are led into false expectations about how the real-life communication occurs (Underwood 1989, 99). To sum up, in teaching listening, non-authentic materials play an important role, especially at the early stages of learning, but authentic dialogues with their characteristics imitating the real-life environment should prevail in order to enable learners to function easily in real-life situations.

4.3 Types of listening

To determine where the focus of listening is, the listening can be divided into four categories. In CEFR, the categories are described as follows: listening for gist, for specific information, for detailed understanding, and for implications (CEFR 2001, 65). However, for the purpose of this thesis, Wilson's interpretation will be used. Anyway, Wilson specifies the categories in a similar way to CEFR. He divides the types of listening into four categories too, presenting them as "the types of listening we engage in on a day-to-day basis" (2008, 9).

Listening for gist is the first category. The main purpose is to get a general idea of what is being said (Wilson 2008, 9). For example, to determine the listening text's general topic, the theme and main points is the purpose of listening for gist (Siegel 2018, 1). Wilson (2008, 82) provides the following examples of typical gist questions: What does the speaker think of the topic? Who are the speakers talking about? In short, students must grasp the main idea without worrying about the details.

Listening for specific information is the second type of listening. While listening for specific information, the listener should be focused on a very specific part in a listening passage. Simultaneously, this type of listening is called selective listening as the concentration is focused on particular piece of selected information (Wilson 2008, 83). To give an example, when listening to announcements in a railway station, heading for Prague, our focus is on what is relevant for us and we hardly remember anything about the other destinations. Therefore, it is irrelevant to focus on any other piece of information. Typical questions for listening for specific info are those asking about time, date, number, name, etc. (Wilson 2008, 83). To provide an example: When did she return from her holiday? What time did she get up yesterday? Where did she go after school? are the typical questions while listening for specific information. It is important to note that when defining the type of listening, it is vital to evaluate the questions on the basis of the context.

Listening in detail is the third category. This type can be considered as the exact opposite of listening for specific information since learners should concentrate on a listening passage as a whole, as they do not get any specific questions in advance. In other words, it is not clear in advance what information will help them to achieve their task (Wilson 2008, 10).

The fourth type of listening is the inferential listening – further specified as inferring. While inferring, learners must find answers from clues and from prior knowledge rather than directly. In other words, learners make own deductions from what has been stated (Wilson 2008, 84).

Evidently, as stated in chapter three, top-down process is active when using prior knowledge to understand the meaning. To conclude, before listening to a text, learners should be aware of these different types of listening in order to find out what the purpose is. They necessarily do not need to know explicitly the type of listening, but they should know in advance whether it is vital to get a general idea of a listening passage or if the focus on specific information is essential. Becoming aware of this fact will help them to both focus on the important points and reach their goal.

4.4 Listening text types

To prepare learners to cope with real-life listening, they should experience listening to various text types as the real world involves listening to many kinds of spoken language (Richard and Burns 2012, 49). The reason is that different kinds of speech are modified in specific ways. Richards and Burns continue saying that these kinds of speech are “creating particular genres (or text types) of spoken discourse” (2012, 49). For this purpose, the authors differentiate five listening text types: casual conversations, recounts and narratives, information reports, explanations and procedures, and viewpoints.

As discussed above, each of this type represents different patterns of organization in the discourse as well as the kind of language. Causal conversations represent a friendly interaction when speakers often exchange personal stories. Primarily, it features authentic informal talk. Recounts and narratives are nearly identical and share many of the linguistic features except that narratives tell a story and recounts depict past events. Information reports can be characterized as a counterpart to casual conversations. These reports solely present information, there is no interaction between speakers. Explanations and procedures can use both formal or informal language and its main purpose is to explain how or why things work, or how a procedure takes place. Viewpoints has its important role too, especially for students who should be encouraged to express their own opinions (Richard and Burns, 2012, 53-65).

To sum up, each of the listening text type covers different kinds of spoken language with specific discourse. Since this range of listening texts may imitate all listening situations the students encounter in the real life, supplying students with these texts from different points will allow them to better understand the language. It is true in this case, the more variety the better.

4.5 Extensive and intensive listening

It is also possible to classify a listening text as extensive or intensive (Ur 2012, 28). Some authors are simply using the terms extensive and intensive listening (Rixon 9-10, Harmer 303), where perceiving the study of a text as a material source of listening in the same way as a procedure of listening. Researchers also draw an analogy between reading and listening, as both extensive and intensive text study are employed in listening as well as in reading (Rixon 10, Harmer 303). Nevertheless, it would be beneficial to discuss which of the text studies/procedures contribute to a greater extent to developing listening skills.

Extensive listening means “that the text is read/heard for pleasure and/or for information, but not studied in detail” (Ur 2012, 29). When listening for pleasure, it is vital to present a text which is easily understood to students, as under these conditions the satisfaction of an almost complete understanding occurs. Consequently, students’ satisfaction keeps their motivation and interest high (Rixon 1986, 10), which is crucial in any learning attempts. However, while the term extensive might evoke the idea of a large amount of text, it is not always the case. As Rixon claims, extensive texts “can also be quite short, when, for example, students hear a short poem or joke, just for pleasure or fun” (1986,10). Whether it is long or short text, extensive listening is providing valuable contact with English in its spoken form (Rixon, 10). However, Ur concludes that the main aim of extensive listening is to “improve listening fluency and any language learning is incidental” (2012, 29). On the other hand, the intensive text is understood and studied in detail (Ur 2012, 28). Listening to a passage, students must collect and organize the information while trying to fulfil the task (Rixon 1986, 10). Consequently, the tasks are done “essentially for the sake of improving comprehension in general” (Ur 2012, 29). In other words, the aim of intensive listening is to develop listening skills. Harmer divides intensive listening into two categories: listening to recorded material and live listening - reading aloud, story-telling, interviews, conversations (2007, 304-307). The content of these two categories will be discussed in the following chapter 4.6. listening sources.

To sum up, the aim of intensive listening is to develop listening skills whereas extensive listening serves as a tool for improving listening fluency. Since listening of both extensive and intensive texts is important, this thesis is rather concerned with intensive listening as it contributes significantly to developing listening comprehension. Moreover, intensive listening is perhaps the most widely used form of listening practice in classrooms.

4.5.1 The length of the intensive listening

As intensive listening demands learners to expend effort while collecting and organizing the information to fulfil the task, this might be a challenge for them. Therefore, the length of intensive listening should be limited in some way. Rixon claims that passages for intensive listening “should be short, not more than a few minutes long” (1986, 10). Wilson claims that while listening, students should not be overloaded by input. Nevertheless, he is not suggesting any specific time limit for the length of a listening passage, he is only citing elementary coursebooks which average about one minute per listening passage (2008, 29). Subsequently, he finds reasonings for listening passage’s length in coursebooks. To conclude, the listening passage should not be longer than a few minutes, specifically the length of about one to two minutes is recommended.

4.6 Listening sources

When discussing sources of listening for the purpose of language teaching or learning, most people immediately recall recorded listening materials. The truth is that in the educational environment, recorded materials have formed the ground of most listening comprehension work (Underwood 1989, 94). At present, many teachers use audio material on CD or hard disk.

Nevertheless, there is a variety of listening sources teachers may use to develop listening skills of their students. Wilson (2008, 41-52) offers a range of seven categories: teacher talk; student talk; guest speakers; textbook recordings; television, video, DVD and radio; songs and internet. First, it is vital to classify teacher talk as it might be perceived differently. Teacher talk is not solely about telling stories to students, but also standard communication with students when a teacher is giving instructions, making announcements, describing, explaining, and so on (Ur 2012, 105).

Wilson differentiates three subcategories in teacher talk:

- planned input – teacher conveys some information to students, usually organizational information when high concentration is expected. This talk does not come with pedagogical task, on the other hand, it conveys real-world info that students need
- semi-planned input – teacher’s talk is prepared, but not scripted, which means, for example, that a teacher planned to talk something about her/his life or experience, but did not write the talk down in advance

- spontaneous input – spontaneous input is unavoidable if the lesson is conducted in English. This includes “words of encouragement, witty comments, gossip, on-the-spot classroom management”

(2008, 42-43)

All the above-mentioned inputs are usually sequences of talks. In addition to them, Wilson (2008, 43) reckons extended teacher’s talk while delivering longer and structured speech – as storytelling. However, it should be noted that this type of talk requires much planning, and some vital factors need to be considered before such talk is carried out in a class. Overall, any kind of teacher talk is highly recommended by many authors. Ur (2012, 105) finds it to be an excellent source of listening comprehension by saying that “probably the best listening comprehension texts are those you provide yourself through your own talk.” Wilson also emphasizes the positive contribution of teacher’s talk claiming that “listening to the teacher is the most frequent and valuable form of input during lessons” (2008, 42). He supports his idea with arguments that during this activity, the teacher is controlling the whole process and can anytime modify and adjust the speed of speech, can paraphrase difficult vocabulary, and repeat key points (2008, 42). Consequently, perceiving teachers spend hundreds of hours with their students, using English when telling short stories, or simply while encouraging them, commenting on their actions - this can be a way to influence students in a natural way.

At first sight, student talk can be perceived as a source for developing speaking skills only. The truth is that such talk develops both speaking and listening skills (Wilson 2008, 45). Students speak when interacting with a teacher or participating in a group discussion. Although the latter is considered by some teachers as unfavourable as students can adopt each other’s mistakes when having a discussion, for communication purposes, any conversation is beneficial (Wilson 2008, 45-46).

Inviting guests to a class can be a valuable source for listening too. Guest speakers can be both proficient speakers of English or natives (Wilson 2008, 46). Wilson claims that the biggest advantage of listening to a guest speaker is the fact it gives a great advantage of listening to a live, authentic, and real-time conversation (2008, 46). Ur (2012, 106) also recommends visitors in a class by saying that “this gives students opportunities to hear different accents spoken spontaneously by a visible speaker.”

As stated at the beginning of this chapter, the recorded listening materials are the basis of most listening comprehension work in a class. Textbook recordings are listening sequences in the textbooks used in a class (Wilson 2008, 47). Although sitting around and listening to a CD

player is not entirely a natural activity (Harmer 2007, 306), there are two main advantages of textbook recordings – first, it is their variety – they provide materials of many types. Second, textbook recordings are often integrated within the syllabus, which means these recordings refer to the grammar or vocabulary taught in a lesson recently (Wilson 2008, 48).

Watching TV, video or DVD in a class has one indisputable advantage – there is a visual cue. Moreover, the material is usually authentic, topical, with information from the real world (Wilson 2008,48).

Allowing students to listen to songs in a class is often neglected. This may be because not all students like music and if so, everybody has a specific interest. On the other hand, as Wilson (2008, 49) claims “music brings other dimensions – art and emotions – to the classroom.” On top of that, as Harmer claims, that listening to songs “can make a satisfactory connection between the world of leisure and the world of learning in the classroom” (2007, 319).

And lastly, the internet offers a countless number of listening texts on English language-learning websites. Most of them include questions, answers and even explanations of correct answers (Wilson 2008, 52). Since today’s generation of youths is growing up in close “friendship” with computers, it might be assumed they will consider this source as a natural tool to develop their listening skills.

Evidently, above-mentioned sources of listening are discussed predominantly from the perspective of the advantages. Of course, as everything when considering diverse points of view, these sources have disadvantages too. Nevertheless, for the sake of this thesis, it is important to deal with the aspects which lead to developing listening skills. Moreover, in this case again, the more variability learners experience in a classroom, the better for their existence in real life.

4.7 The phases of a listening lesson and types of activities

Perceiving listening comprehension is a complex and demanding process, well-designed listening lessons should have a certain structure to help learners to cope with a listening task. Nowadays, the listening lesson is traditionally divided into three phases: pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening phase (Wilson 2008, 60-61). However, for example, Rixon (1986, 64) describes the third phase as a follow-up phase while the purpose remains the same. Simultaneously, each of the phases is focused on a different aspect of listening skills and strategies (Richards 2012, 85). In the following subcategories, the primary purpose and individual goals of listening phases will be specified.

4.7.1 Pre-listening phase

According to Wilson (2008, 60), the purpose of the pre-listening phase is to activate schemata about a topic and to initiate a reason to listen. In other words, students should apply a prior knowledge of a topic and determine why to listen to the passage. The reason is, as Underwood (1989, 30) explains, in real life, unlike while listening in a lesson, people know what to expect to hear in advance. As Wilson (2008, 60) continues, the overall aim is “to help our students to prepare for what they are going to hear, and this gives them a greater chance of success in any given task.” He also points out the importance of getting students interested in the topic (Wilson 2008, 96).

4.7.1.1 Clear instructions

This might not be worth mentioning, but sometimes self-evident elements are being neglected. Therefore, it is vital to remind of the necessity for giving clear instructions to students before listening. Moreover, as Underwood claims (1989, 32) the teacher should make sure that the students know exactly what is required of them. This prevents them from not attempting to do anything or simply getting frustrated for failing in a task completion. Consequently, giving clear instructions to students is the essential part of the pre-listening phase.

4.7.1.2 Pre-listening phase activities

As for the pre-listening phase activities, Underwood (1989, 31) suggests for example, discussion of the topic/situation, reading something relevant to the topic or teacher, giving background information to students. Wilson suggests some other activities, such as brainstorming generating some ideas based on a topic, using realia - photos, guides, maps, or brochures. Helping students to predict the development of a story or dialogue through familiarity with certain daily-life situations is also beneficial (2008, 64-72).

4.7.1.3 Pre-teaching vocabulary

Pre-teaching vocabulary during the pre-listening phase is a questionable topic. Some authors do recommend this activity, but within certain limits. As Wilson (2008, 76) states, pre-teaching vocabulary has its positives and negatives – if there might be many unknown words which are essential to the meaning of the listening session, it is better to pre-teach them as it may provide students confidence in a topic.

On the other hand, based on a study by the researchers Chang and Read, Wilson (2008, 77) points out the conclusion that “pre-teaching vocabulary was considered the least effective of a number of pre-listening techniques.” One of the reasons is the fact that students will rather focus on the unknown word than on a listening passage as a whole (Wilson 2008, 77). Richards and Burns (2012, 94) point out that “focusing students’ attention on vocabulary at the pre-listening phase is helpful and sometimes necessary.” They continue saying that only the words which are central to the overall understanding should be pre-taught (2012, 94). However, Ur summarizes the idea as follows: “A first presentation of a new word does not ensure that students remember it” (2012, 108). She concludes saying that pre-teaching one or two items may help, but not more as students will hardly recall a new word quickly enough during a fast speech in a listening session (2012, 108). Overall, teachers should consider very carefully on whether it is vital to pre-teach a vocabulary or not. If so, the less the better, and there should be a selection on what is really a central word to the understanding of a text, and which can be easily guessed from the context.

4.7.2 While-listening phase

According to Rixon (1986, 71), the aim of this phase is very simple – students should understand the message of the text they are listening to. Richards and Burns consider this phase as perhaps the most demanding part of a listening lesson as “students must process texts for meaning and respond in different ways, according to the type of text they are listening to and their purpose in listening” (2012,99).

4.7.2.1 While-listening phase activities

As while-listening phase might be considered the core and most demanding part of the listening lesson, it is vital to help learners to cope with it. To do so, while-listening activities should be interesting to students so that they are encouraged to do them (Underwood 1989, 46). Concerning the length of while-listening activities, these should not be too extensive not to overload students with tasks during while-listening phase (Ur 2012, 108) simply because students should put a maximum effort in listening, not in writing (Rixon 1986, 70). Lastly, the student’s desire to succeed should not be neglected and therefore the task should be used at an appropriate level of difficulty (Richards and Burns 2012, 101).

4.7.3 Post-listening phase

The post-listening phase serves several useful purposes. As Richards and Burns claim, some of the main goals are to examine student's understanding of a listening passage and to find the best way to correct any errors in understanding if they occurred (2012, 111). These two goals are called comprehension-focused activities. On the other hand, concentration might be targeted on a grammar, vocabulary, and structure of the text – these goals are proclaimed to be an acquisition-focused activity (Richards and Burns 2012, 111). To place it in the context of top-down and bottom-up processes, the latter concerns understanding the structure of words, whilst top-down features involve, for example, understanding information about the speakers (Wilson 2008, 96).

4.7.3.1 Post-listening phase activities

Checking the answers and summarising is not the only purpose of the post-listening phase (Underwood 1989, 75-78). It might be a shame to make do with checking whether the students have completed while-listening task successfully when schemata about a certain topic have been activated already. It would be beneficial to develop this experience into further action.

For example, Wilson claims that discussion is a valuable source of expanding on the topic provided the input was interesting to students in order to inspire debate or a discussion (2008, 99). Or, as Rixon remarks, making notes while listening may lead to re-forming these notes into a written description of some process (1986,72).

Post-listening activities can be creative too. Underwood suggests that providing students a chance to recognize a speaker's attitudes and manners should be a purpose of post-listening phase too (1989, 77). The reason is that it might be challenging to recognize speaker's attitude when listening to a foreign language, unlike listening to their native language (1989,77). In other words, post-listening work can involve integration with other language skills when developing the topic into writing or speaking activities. In summary, all three listening phases are substantial parts of a listening lesson. In some cases, of course, pre-listening or post-listening work can be omitted as the nature of the listening passage does not demand it. On the other hand, teachers should always bear in mind that each of phases has its purpose and therefore should not be omitted as a matter of principle.

Summary of the theoretical part

At first, the theoretical part specifies the goals of English language teaching – both expected outcomes of listening comprehension as well as the communicative language competence. The goals stem from the curricular documents CEFR and FEP BE. After that, it describes listening as a process with its characteristic features. For example, top-down and bottom-up processing is specified. The second half of the theoretical part deals with the aspects and principles of teaching listening comprehension. These include the types of listening, sources of listening, listening text types and the classification into intensive/extensive listening. Furthermore, the authenticity of listening texts is discussed. The theoretical part also suggests the length of a listening passage. Lastly, pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening phases are defined. Listening phases also include activities which are recommended to be used in a particular phase. Moreover, in a pre-listening phase, the topic of vocabulary pre-teaching and the requirement for clear instruction is remarked. As a conclusion, the content of the theoretical part serves as a basis for the list of criteria under which the listening passages have been evaluated in the practical part of this thesis.

PRACTICAL PART

5 CONDUCTING RESEARCH

5.1 The aim of the research

The aim of the empirical part of the thesis is to find out whether, and in which way the development of listening comprehension is being promoted by teachers in the lower secondary school.

5.2 Research questions

For better clarity, the aim of the research is elaborated into following two questions:

1. Is the development of listening comprehension being promoted by teachers in the lower secondary school?
2. In which way is the development of listening comprehension being promoted by teachers in the lower secondary school?

5.3 The research sample

The research group consisted of a representative sample of seventh-grade learners. On the International Standard Classification of Education scale, learners of the seventh grade are considered the part of lower secondary education.

The reason seventh-grade learners were selected as a subject group is the fact that at this stage, learners already have a solid background and knowledge in SLA since they have been learning English for five years (since the third grade). On the other hand, they have not yet reached the highest possible level in elementary education. In other words, they are still on the way to reach A2 level of ability based on CEFR.

5.4 Methodology

As for the type of research, the combination of qualitative and quantitative research was conducted to answer the research question. As Mackey and Gass (2016, 3) claim, this distinction is somewhat simplistic as mixed-methods research involves elements of both.

To justify the qualitative type of research, this approach is selected when researchers aim to study individuals and events in their natural settings, moreover, the individuals usually form a group of fewer participants comparing to quantitative research (Mackey and Gass 2016, 216). Accordingly, classroom environment corresponds to the specifics of the research sample. On the other hand, the type of selected technique of research method corresponds to the quantitative type of research – structured observation (Gavora 2000, 76).

According to Gavora (2000, 76), observation is a process when human actions are being observed, noted, analysed, and evaluated in the end. Mackey and Gass describe observations as methods of generating data involving the researcher's immersion in a research setting, and systematic observation of the dimensions of that setting, interactions, relationships, actions, and so on (2016, 227). They are adding that when collecting data using observational techniques, “researchers aim to provide careful descriptions of learners' activities without unduly influencing the events in which the learners are engaged” (2016, 227). To identify the type of the observation, structured observation was used as the criteria and the categories of this research were set before the observation. These criteria and categories are part of the observation sheet which is attached to this thesis.

Here, it is important to explain how the research was carried out in practice. Due to the COVID 19 outbreak and the restrictions emerging from this unprecedented situation, all English lessons were on-line only. Accordingly, while observing I was not present in a classroom, I took part in on-line lessons. The participants of my observation (learners and a teacher) were not visible as it was not obligatory to have the camera on. It would appear that there was hardly anything to observe, but the observation tools were adjusted to the situation – all lessons which were the object of my observation were recorded on a voice recorder. As Mackey and Gass remark, it is common to supplement observation notes with a mechanical means of recording the lesson, such as audio recording (2016, 259). This was not an observation in the true sense of the word, but the nature of my research allowed me to use audio recording as a tool for data collection without having a negative impact on the outcome of the research. On the contrary, obtaining data from the recorded material enabled me to analyse them afterwards in greater detail and without any time pressure. As Gavora (2000, 86) explains, everything that happens in the classroom usually happens very quickly, and therefore, makes it very difficult for the observer. Subsequently, data were analysed more thoroughly and cautiously. Moreover, on-line teaching without visual cues, I might have avoided my presence would disrupt classroom functioning or influence the learners' behaviour in any way.

5.5 Participants of the research

This research was carried out in January 2021. As stated before, the learners of the seventh grade of elementary school were observed. They were part of a group of fifteen students. The elementary school is situated in Hradec Králové and approximately six hundred students attend this school. The English teacher at this school has about twenty years practice in English language teaching. English classes were held three times a week in the on-line mode. That is the same frequency as during regular schooling. To make the representative sample as much appropriate as possible, ten consecutive English lessons were selected. There was one more reason for observing consecutive lessons; and that is to answer the first research question. To obtain the answer to this question, the usage of a compact period is necessary in order to make an informative conclusion. To answer the second research question, the list of criteria for evaluation was prepared on which base the listening passages were analysed.

5.6 List of criteria for evaluation

1. Does the topic of a listening passage correspond with CEFR/FEP BE thematic categories?

Pre-listening phase

2. Is the while-listening phase preceded by pre-listening phase?

3. What activities are used in the pre-listening phase?

4. Does pre-listening phase include pre-teaching of vocabulary?

5. Do the students receive clear instructions on what to do during while-listening phase?

While-listening phase

6. What type of listening does the listening passage refer to?

7. What listening text type is used as a source of listening?

8. What source of listening has been employed?

9. Is the listening passage authentic or non-authentic?

10. Is the listening text extensive or intensive?

11. What is the length of a listening passage?

Post-listening phase

12. Is the while-listening phase followed by post-listening phase?
13. What activities are used in post-listening phase?
14. Did learners get a feedback on the listening task?

5.7 Analysis of individual listening passages

Before analysing individual listening passages, it is vital to define what is meant by a listening passage. In this thesis, a listening passage is a piece of listening learners listen to in an English lesson.

5.7.1 Listening passage 1

Students were listening to a passage from Project book where a detective is interviewing five people and trying to find out where these people were and what they were doing when an incident happened, specifically when they heard the shot. While listening, students were supposed to answer these questions and match them with the appropriate name of a person being interviewed. There were five people in total. The topic of this listening passage could be included in a thematic category of society and its problems stemming from FEP BE. There was no pre-listening phase preceding the while-listening phase. In fact, this listening passage was used as a follow up to the grammar practice of past continuous tense. On the other hand, students received clear instructions on what to focus on while listening. Literally, a teacher instructed them to answer the following questions: Where were these people when they heard the shot? What were they doing? Accordingly, students were focusing on specific information to answer these questions, therefore, to determine the type of listening, it is listening for specific information. In this case, the textbook recording was the source of this listening passage. The input was non-authentic, it was scripted for the purpose of language teaching and moreover it had all features of non-authentic text. Listening was intensive as students were supposed to fulfil tasks while listening. The length of intensive listening was 1:36 minutes. As for the post-listening phase, teacher was examining students' understanding by going through the questions. Accordingly, the teacher gave a feedback only. There was no extra activity in post-listening phase.

5.7.2 Listening passage 2

Students were listening to a passage called Young lifesavers. Two young people both saved someone's life in an accident and they are telling how it happened. Accordingly, the topic might correspond with CEFR topic relations with other people. Before listening, ten questions were submitted to students. These are for example: When was Mark on holiday? What accident happened to his father? How did his father get to hospital? The teacher made sure all students understand the instructions. Again, these types of questions help us to determine the type of listening as listening for specific information. This time, students were listening to accounts of past experience which is known as recounts and narratives. At first sight, this type of listening could be considered as authentic as it was a recount of an accident which happened in real-life, but in fact the listening text was non-authentic as it was scripted – for example, the speech was not at normal speed, the language was well structured without any hesitations or incomplete sentences. Regarding the source of listening, the teacher selected Project book again. The task included ten questions to be answered after listening, therefore, listening with a task is intensive listening. The length of a listening passage was 1:40 minutes. Regarding the post-listening phase, students reviewed the correct answers on above questions. After that, teacher summarized the listening text by saying that some actions young lifesavers made were brave and some sounded dangerous. As a follow up she decided to practise the correct use of “it sounds/it looks” in an exercise from Project workbook. In fact, I do not consider this practice as post-listening activity because it is not anyhow developing the topic of while-listening activity nor concentrating on any grammar element. Simply, the teacher made some conclusions about the text by herself and used it for subsequent grammar practice.

5.7.3 Listening passage 3

This listening passage differed from the two previous ones in many ways. In fact, students were watching a video about Great Britain. This was a 5-minute footage from Project book. Accordingly, sometimes when a speaker was visible, students had a visual cue – they could see the facial expressions and body language of speaker, which could make understanding a bit easier. In the first part of this video, students had a chance to hear information on how the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland has been formed from historical point of view. In the second part, each of four parts of the UK was shortly introduced.

This topic complies with the thematic subject basic facts on relevant foreign language speaking countries from FEP BE. Listening passage was preceded by pre-listening phase, which was divided into two parts. Pre-teaching vocabulary was the first part of pre-listening phase. The teacher asked students to review unit vocabulary through an on-line test in WocaBee. This is an IT application which enables students to learn new vocabulary through word packages added by the teacher. Then, students should pass each package by the given deadline and the teacher got a feedback from the system in order to find out how students succeeded. Accordingly, students were doing a unit word package on vocabulary, which will be most likely heard in a while-listening phase. Second part of the pre-listening phase consisted of a short discussion about the UK. The teacher asked students what they know about the United Kingdom. Some students got engaged and expressed their ideas. This time, the instructions given by the teacher were very simple. She asked them just to listen to absorb the correct pronunciation. It is also worth to mention that students were supposed to read the text in a textbook while listening. Anyway, there was no requirement for fulfilling a task after listening. Taking into consideration the fact that students were not supposed to study the text in detail and the length of listening was 5 minutes, we may conclude this was an extensive listening. According to the listening text type, this passage can be characterized as listening to information reports as information about the United Kingdom was presented, there was no interaction between speakers. Regarding the authenticity of this listening passage, again, it was non-authentic listening. The speaker was in authentic environment of London when talking about London, but her speech was not authentic – it was scripted – the pace of her speech was low, not natural, there were no background noises, etc. In the post-listening phase, students were following some points (parts of the UK, capitals) on the map and trying to answer the teacher’s questions on the topic which could have been heard in this listening passage.

5.7.4 Listening passage 4

This listening was carried out in the same English lesson as the listening passage number three. It can be understood that this listening passage somehow completed the lesson about the topic of the United Kingdom. In fact, the topic was very interesting – three people (one from Wales, the other from Scotland and the last one from Northern Ireland) were talking about their country. Students were supposed to answer three questions while listening (Which part of the UK is each person from? Which person talks about money? What does each person say about sport?). Thus, thematically, it follows the previous listening passage and complies with FEP BE requirements. These questions were part of a textbook assignment.

Listening passage number three and discussion about it can be considered as a content of pre-listening phase – students had a previous knowledge about the topic. Students also received clear instructions on what to do as a listening task. The type of these questions corresponds with listening for specific information. On the other hand, it would be beneficial to students to be acknowledged in pre-listening phase about the difference in speakers' accents as there were a representative of Wales, Northern Ireland, and Scotland in the listening passage. If it had been for notification from the teacher, students could have recognized how the accents can differ in one country such as the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. As the listening passage was 1:30 minutes long and included a task to be fulfilled, I perceive it as an intensive listening. In a certain way, listening text type can be characterized as information report when speakers are providing factual information about the country, they are living in. In the post-listening phase, there was no activity. Students neither received feedback (the answers should have been sent to the teacher in written) nor any activity was required.

5.7.5 Listening passage 5

As for the character of this listening passage, it was a part of Unit 3 Test from Project book. Since past continuous tense was a part of grammar taught in Unit 3, the speaker was using past continuous tense to talk about the past events in this passage. Considering the topic, the speaker was describing the activities he was doing on one evening – specifically he was watching a TV programme and depicted what was on, and what happened in a film he had watched. Therefore, we might classify this topic as a part of the free time thematic category in CEFR. As for the task, students were supposed to answer questions in two exercises. First exercise included eight multiple choice questions (for example, what was the speaker doing last night? a/ Watching TV b/ Cooking a meal c/ Listening to music). The second exercise also included eight questions, but these were gap-fill questions (for example - The speaker was watching TV at p.m.). It might be said that the task was rather demanding as for the total number of questions as for the variety of question types. In pre-listening phase, students were given clear instructions and had a chance to study the questions and ask if any vocabulary was not understood. In fact, pre-teaching of the vocabulary was not planned and initiated by the teacher but was rather explained on demand. On the other hand, there was no activity which could elicit prior knowledge of a topic or to prepare students for what they are going to hear. According to the length of this passage (1:25 min) and the demand for tasks to be completed while/after listening, we might consider it as an intensive listening.

Again, listening text in this passage was non-authentic and can be characterized as listening for specific information. As for the listening text type, the speaker was recounting his early experience, therefore listening for recounts and narratives. In the post-listening phase, teacher provided feedback on students' responses.

5.7.6 Listening passage 6

This listening passage involved a dialogue from London's Tourist office – a father with his two children (a boy and girl) wanted to see some museums in London and asked the tourist office adviser what the possibilities are and how much the entrance fee is. This topic corresponds to CEFR under the thematic category of travelling. There was no pre-listening phase which could help students to understand the topic. On the other hand, students were given clear instructions from the teacher – they were going to answer four questions: What do people want to do in London? Why? What do they decide to do? How much is it going to cost? As it stems from the type of these questions, the listening was a mix of listening for specific information and listening in detail. Again, the teacher selected this listening passage in a Project book as a scripted dialogue, therefore the listening was non-authentic. As students had a task to fulfil, listening was intensive with a total length of 2:10 minutes. That was the first time when post-listening phase involved other activities than providing a feedback only. Despite on-line teaching, students were split up into pairs and were supposed to make a dialogue similar to what they heard in a listening passage. Therefore, one student played a tourist office adviser and the other one was a tourist. The tourist had to choose a place in London he would like to see, and the adviser was trying to advise him how to get there and how much it is going to cost.

5.7.7 Listening passage 7

The seventh listening passage had a title of Sweet Sue and the bank robbers. In fact, Sweet Sue is a detective who accompanies students through the whole Project book in the form of a comic strip. This time, she was accidentally chosen by bank robbers to advise them how to get to the bank. This topic could be concluded as a part of society and its problems in FEP BE's thematic group. Giving instructions to students, the teacher notified them that this listening passage is a revision of grammar on directions and use of proper prepositions with directions. Realizing that, students were supposed to answer three questions while listening. These questions were: Where do the men want to go? Why? Why don't they go there? Based on this type of questions, this listening passage can be characterized as listening for specific info and listening in detail.

In addition, the activity in pre-listening phase was chosen in connection with above-mentioned grammar practice. Students carried out an on-line test with ten questions, guessing the correct preposition for the expressions of place. While listening, students were directed to read the comic strip in the textbook. Unfortunately, listening passage was non-authentic again, as the speech was not spontaneous but scripted. Students having a task to be fulfilled, listening was intensive with a total length of 2:29 minutes. In the post-listening phase, teacher gave a feedback on the answers students had written down. Moreover, students practised prepositions for the expressions of place in Project book's exercise.

5.8 Overall evaluation of listening passages

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the individual criteria of my research from an overall perspective. Accordingly, seven listening passages will be analysed as a whole concentrating on the criteria from the observation sheet.

As for the topics of the listening passages, all were in correspondence with thematic categories stemming from the curricular documents CEFR and FEP BE. This can be a result of teacher's target to conform to the curricular standards, or, regarding the fact that all listening passages originated in the Project book published by European education institution Oxford University press, this source might automatically assure the thematic category conformity to the European educational framework.

As discussed in the theoretical part of this thesis, the listening lesson should be divided into three phases: pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening phase (Wilson 2008, 60-61). At the same time, each of the phases has its purpose and plays an important role in the development of listening comprehension. For example, pre-listening phase serves as a basis for raising students' interest (Wilson 2008, 96) or to activate schemata about topic (Richard and Burns 2012, 86). As a result, learners get a greater chance of success in any given task. Nevertheless, out of seven listening passages, three listening passages contained pre-listening activities, where one out of three pre-listening activities included grammar practice.

This type of grammar phenomenon could have been heard in the listening passage, which means there is a connectedness between pre-listening phase and the listening text itself. On the other hand, grammar practice does not raise the interest nor activate prior knowledge of the topic.

To present one of the positive findings, in all seven listening passages, students were given clear instructions from the teacher, moreover the teacher gave enough time to the students to

make sure they understand the instructions. In other words, students knew what information they should focus on and what they are expected to do in a while-listening task.

Regarding the listening text type, it is highly recommended to prepare learners to cope with various listening text types (Richard and Burns 2012, 49). The reason is that various listening text types include different kinds of speech which are modified in specific ways (Richard and Burns 2012, 49). Out of five listening text types, only two were presented in seven listening passages – recounts and narratives, and information reports. Listening to viewpoints, listening helping students to follow explanation and procedures, and listening to casual conversations were omitted. The latter will be discussed further when analysing the authenticity of a listening text.

Comparing listening types, not listening text types, the listening passages were either listening for specific information or listening in detail. For example, inferential listening did not appear at all. That might be caused by the fact that the English language level of seventh grade learners did not allow students to succeed in inferential listening. On the other hand, I believe the activities connected to inferential listening might be very interesting and creative when learners might, for example guess in which mood the speaker is. For seventh grade learners, it might be feasible to infer the mood by saying that the speaker was sad/happy/angry – these words are certainly a part of seventh grade learners' vocabulary. The second listening type which did not appear in listening lessons is a listening for gist. It might be assumed that listening for gist is recognized to be the least important listening type as the learner's attention is not that intensive when listening for gist. On the other hand, it should not be omitted in listening lessons. Linking to daily life, there are many situations when we need to grasp only the main idea.

Considering the source of seven listening passages, solely textbook recordings from Project book were used. This would not be a disadvantage if most listening texts have not been non-authentic. The fact is that speech in non-authentic dialogues is not natural at all, it is artificial in a certain way. Moreover, the utterance is slower even monotonous, sentences are complete, and the language is structured (Wilson 2008, 30). In other words, non-authentic texts lack the authenticity. That means that authentic utterance features of relative unstructured language, overlaps and interruptions between speakers, the sentences are incomplete, with false starts, hesitations, etc. (Wilson 2008, 30). Authenticity is closely connected to the goals of listening comprehension – to expose learners to the speech which is heard in daily life – not-scripted, but improvised speech utterances. Above all, the learners should be exposed to informal speech which is commonly used by natives in daily life (Ur 2012, 101). Consequently, non-authentic or scripted dialogues lack of all above mentioned features of authenticity.

On the other hand, as discussed in theoretical part, non-authentic/scripted dialogues should not be completely dismissed as these play an irreplaceable role at early stages, when students are getting used to the sounds of the language (Richards and Burns, 2012, 23). However, learners should have the opportunity to experience real-life and authentic listening texts.

In addition to textbook recordings, there was another source used in the listening lessons. That is a teacher talk. The teacher used English in the form of planned or spontaneous input (Wilson 2008, 42-3). To define, she used English while giving instructions, making announcements, describing, or explaining. Additionally, the words of encouragement and classroom management orders were proceeded in English too. That is to say, that most of the interaction with the students was carried out in English.

To evaluate the listening passages from the point of view of duration, out of seven listening passages extensive listening appeared only once. The fact that extensive listening does not develop listening comprehension (Ur 2012, 29) might have been the reason for that. On the other hand, extensive listening contributes to improving listening fluency (Ur 2012, 29). Moreover, extensive listening is primarily recommended as an activity which takes place outside the classroom – as a leisure activity in the student’s home when watching films, videos, or podcasts (Harmer 2007, 303). Accordingly, six listening passages were intensive as they were studied in detail (Ur 2012, 28). It is worth to mention that the length of intensive listening did not exceed two minutes.

The third listening phase, after pre- and while-listening phase, is post-listening phase. In this phase, the answers to listening task should be reviewed by a teacher and students. The other purpose of post-listening phase is to further elaborate the topic of the listening passage, for example while having a discussion in a classroom (Wilson 2008, 99). Out of seven cases, the feedback was not given by a teacher in one case only. Additional activities in post-listening phase appeared in three listening lessons. Accordingly, the four listening passages included only the feedback on listening task. This might be perceived as a missed opportunity considering the fact that learners had already been immersed in a topic. On the other hand, there might not be always enough time to conclude a listening lesson in a proper way.

5.9 Final evaluation

Before summarizing the findings of the practical part, it is important to highlight the limitations of the research. The reason is that I was observing ten successive English lessons in one particular lower secondary school and therefore my findings are based on relatively short time of period and with limited research sample.

Nevertheless, based on my research, I am presenting the following findings:

Research question number one: Is the development of listening comprehension being promoted by teachers in the lower secondary school?

To answer the first research question, out of ten successive English lessons, listening comprehension was part of seven English lessons. Regarding the fact that the incidence of listening comprehension in English lessons is not anyhow declared or determined, it may be subjectively stated, it is a relatively frequent representation – seventy percent of English lessons included listening comprehension. Therefore, it may be concluded that there has been an attempt to promote listening comprehension at learners in the lower secondary school. Moreover, claiming that most (90 percent) of the listening were intensive, listening comprehension was developed.

Research question number two: In which way is the development of listening comprehension being promoted by teachers in lower-secondary schools?

To answer the second research question, the development of listening comprehension was promoted by exposing learners solely to the listening texts from Project book. This might be a solid and reliable source in terms of credibility as Project book is published by Oxford University Press. On the other hand, the scripted dialogues in this book lacked authenticity. As discussed above, authentic listening texts provide a basis for learners to succeed in real-life listening. Listening text types used in listening passages comprised of narratives and information reports. Following on the authenticity, learners did not have a chance to listen to causal conversations or viewpoints, while these two sources may represent the real-life environment. Consequently, it might be concluded that learners did not have a chance to experience real-life listening and authentic listening texts.

As for the listening phases, in all cases learners were given clear instructions on what to do as a listening task. On the other hand, only three out of seven listening passages included pre-listening activities. It may be concluded that more support should have been given to learners in the pre-listening phase to help them to cope with the listening task. In the post-listening phase, in nearly every case, students received the feedback from the teacher on their answers to the listening tasks. In addition to that, half of the post-listening activities did develop the listening passage's topic in a certain form.

All in all, listening comprehension is promoted by teachers in the lower secondary school. It appeared frequently in English lessons, had all features of intensive listening, but above-mentioned objections should be considered to help students to succeed in fulfilling the listening tasks, or to prepare them to cope with real-life listening. In addition to textbook recordings, the use of other sources of listening might help to enable learners to do so, in other words, learners should be given a chance to hear authentic listening texts.

CONCLUSION

This bachelor thesis deals with development of listening comprehension in English language teaching and learning. The thesis is divided into two parts – the theoretical and practical part.

The aim of the theoretical part is to provide a theoretical framework for the practical part and to discuss the aspects that would be included in the evaluation list of criteria on which base listening passages in a classroom in the lower secondary schools are evaluated. The first chapter introduces the goals of English language teaching and learning deriving from the curricular documents CEFR and FEP BE. CEFR serves as an international framework while FEP BE sets the goals in terms of the Czech educational system. The second chapter follows the CEFR too, it specifies the communicative language competence as a basis for ELT. Furthermore, it highlights the importance of developing communicative competence as an entire group of linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences. The third chapter defines listening as a receptive skill, even though being a complex and active process. This is further confirmed by claiming there are top-down and bottom-up processing which must be combined so that learners can understand and make sense of the spoken language while listening. The fourth chapter is the most comprehensive one. It discusses the principles and aspects of teaching listening comprehension. Real-life listening with its characteristics is described as a goal of teaching listening to enable students to cope with the natural listening situations that are most likely to encounter in real life. This is closely connected to another aspect – the authenticity of listening texts. To determine where the focus of listening is, the listening is divided into four categories – listening for gist, specific information, listening in detail and inferential listening. The differentiation of extensive and intensive listening is discussed too. Another important aspect is the listening source. There is a variety of sources (teacher talk, guest speakers, textbook recordings, TV, video, DVD, songs, the Internet) which might be used in a classroom in order to prepare learners for various listening situations. Lastly, three listening phases are specified – pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening phase. Furthermore, each of the phases includes a list of activities which are recommended to be used in the appropriate phase.

The practical part aims to answer the questions whether and in which way the development of listening comprehension is being promoted by teachers in the lower secondary school. In preparatory phase, the thesis defines the research sample and the research methodology selected for the type of this research. It also describes in detail the whole process of research conduction.

Afterwards, the list of criteria for evaluation is presented. There are fourteen questions/criteria further included in the observation sheet. The observation sheet is attached to the thesis as an appendix A. Based on these criteria, the in-depth analysis of seven listening passages was performed afterwards. This analysis revealed that all the listening passages were in correspondence with thematic categories stemming from the curricular documents CEFR and FEP BE. Ninety percent of listening passages included intensive listening when learners are trying to fulfil the task for the sake of improving comprehension in general. Consequently, the recommended length of an intensive listening was not exceeded in any case. Listening passages focused on listening for specific information as well as on listening in detail. Furthermore, before listening, learners were given clear instructions from the teacher in all cases. She gave them enough time to make sure they understand the instructions. Consequently, after listening, learners received a feedback from the teacher on how they succeeded in a listening task. Less than half of the listening passages included post-listening activities. In these, learners were supposed to do a role-play, textbook exercise, or questions/answers quiz.

The analysis also discovered some drawbacks. Less than half of the listening passages included pre-listening phase. That might not be sufficient as pre-listening phase is the core part of listening. Teachers should always do their best to help their students to be prepared for what they hear, consequently, to have a greater chance to succeed in a listening task. Furthermore, textbook recordings were the only source of listening. Learners did not have a chance to listen to variety of listening sources. Moreover, Project book recordings lack authenticity, therefore non-authentic listening texts were presented only. This might be an issue as non-authentic texts will not prepare learners to cope with listening in a real-life environment where the language might significantly differ from the language used in listening materials from the textbooks.

RESUMÉ

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá rozvojem řečové dovednosti poslechu s porozuměním. Práce je rozdělena do dvou hlavních částí – teoretické a praktické. Cílem teoretické části bylo poskytnout rámec pro vytvoření seznamu kritérií, na jejímž základě budou poté hodnoceny jednotlivé poslechy v hodinách angličtiny na vybrané škole. Cílem praktické části bylo zjistit, zda a jakým způsobem podporují učitelé u žáků na základní škole rozvoj řečové dovednosti poslechu s porozuměním.

První kapitola teoretické části specifikuje jak obecné cíle výuky angličtiny na základní škole, tak specifické cíle pro poslech s porozuměním, a to na základě kurikulárních dokumentů. Jedním z nich je Rámcový vzdělávací plán pro základní vzdělávání (RVP ZV), který definuje principy a očekávané výstupy vzdělávání v rámci České republiky. Pokud jde konkrétně o principy výuky anglického jazyka, RVP ZV vychází ze Společného evropského referenčního rámce pro jazyky (CEFR), který byl vydán Radou Evropy. Jeho cílem je určitým způsobem sjednotit očekávané výstupy v rámci Evropy, definovat úroveň ovládnutí jazyka a specifikovat jazykové znalosti, které musí žáci ovládat, aby užívali jazyk především ke komunikaci. S tím úzce souvisí obsah druhé kapitoly. Do komunikativní jazykové kompetence patří kompetence lingvistické, socio-lingvistické a pragmatické. Komunikativní jazyková kompetence popisuje, co musí žáci ovládat, aby byli schopni v daném cizím jazyce komunikovat. Třetí kapitola definuje proces poslechu. Nejprve se dozvídáme, že řečová dovednost poslechu je v běžném životě tou nejpoužívanější – za ní tedy stojí čtení, psaní a mluvení. Dále je poslech definován jako receptivní dovednost. To by v nás mohlo vyvolat pocit, že se jedná o poměrně pasivní aktivitu, kdy dochází k pouhému přijetí informace, ne k produkci. Opak je ovšem pravdou, poslouchání je aktivní a komplexní proces, kdy dochází ke zpracování informací, které slyšíme a zároveň se jim snažíme porozumět. O tom svědčí i procesy, které jsou během poslechu aktivovány a jsou dále popsány ve třetí kapitole. Čtvrtá kapitola je tou nejobsáhlejší. Zabývá se principy a aspekty výuky poslechu s porozuměním. Jedním z důležitých principů je seznamovat žáky s poslechy, které kopírují přirozenou komunikaci, kterou žáci slyší v běžném životě. Vystavovat žáky takovým poslechům by mělo být jedním z cílů výuky poslechu s porozuměním, a to jednoduše proto, aby žáci takovým poslechům v reálném životě rozuměli. S tím úzce souvisí autentičnost poslechových textů. Autentický poslech má zcela odlišné charakteristiky než ten neautentický – tedy předepsaný a vytvořený uměle speciálně pro výuku poslechu dle učebnic k tomu určených. Dále jsou v této kapitole

uvedeny jednotlivé typy poslechnů – poslech pro získání hlavní myšlenky, poslech k získání specifických informací, detailní poslech a poslech, kdy žáci vyvozují závěry z jednotlivých situací. Výčet jednotlivých typů poslechových textů je také součástí této kapitoly. Opět zde použijí paralelu k situacím z reálného života. Abychom žáky připravili na tyto situace, je nutné jim během procesu učení předložit co největší škálu poslechových textů, protože situace v reálném životě obsahují vícero způsobů mluvy. Tato pestrost je obsažena v následujících typech textů: neformální konverzace, vyprávění, faktické informace, názory a popis procedur. Co se týče variability, lze využít několik zdrojů poslechnů. Rozhodně se nejedná jen o poslechy z učebnic – u nás ve školním prostředí nejpoužívanější zdroj. Jako zdroj poslechu se nám tedy dále nabízí: mluva samotné paní učitelky, mluva spolužáků, rodilí mluvčí či profesionální odborníci v anglickém jazyce, video, DVD a rádio, internet a v neposlední řadě hudba, která přináší do výuky cizího jazyka určitý umělecký a emocionální prvek. Tato kapitola také diskutuje extenzivní a intenzivní typ poslechu, a následně specifikuje doporučenou délku intenzivního poslechu. Poslední subkategorii v této kapitole jsou jednotlivé fáze poslechu. Ty jsou tři – před-poslechová, poslechová a po-poslechová. Všechny fáze poslechu hrají důležitou roli v celém procesu poslechu s porozuměním. Cílem před-poslechové fáze je u žáků aktivovat předchozí znalost tématu a vysvětlit jim cíl poslechu daného textu. To vše proto, abychom žákům pomohli se připravit na to, co uslyší a dali jim šanci být v plnění úkolů souvisejících s poslechem co nejúspěšnější. Dále si musíme být jisti, že žáci vědí a rozumí zadání úkolu, který je s poslechem spojen. K těmto úkolům, respektive k odpovědím na ně, je samozřejmě nutné žákům poskytnout zpětnou vazbu. To však není jediným cílem této fáze. Vzhledem k tomu, že žáci byli již určitým způsobem do daného tématu ponořeni, je dobré dále rozvinout tuto znalost v další aktivity – například diskusi na dané téma.

Cílem praktické části bylo odpovědět na dvě výzkumné otázky. První otázkou je, zda učitelé na základní škole u svých žáků podporují rozvoj řečové dovednosti poslechu s porozuměním a druhou otázkou je, jakým způsobem takto činí. V přípravné fázi výzkumu byl kromě výzkumných otázek popsán výzkumný vzorek a metodologie výzkumu. Celý proces výzkumu je popsán krok za krokem tak, jak byl proveden vzhledem k současné situaci, kdy je většina škol uzavřená a výuka probíhá pouze on-line formou. Poté následuje seznam kritérií, na jehož základě byly jednotlivé poslechy hodnoceny. Tyto poslechy jsou poté důkladně analyzovány přesně podle daného seznamu kritérií, který zahrnuje čtrnáct otázek. Na základě těchto kritérií jsou nakonec zhodnoceny poslechy jako celek. To vytvořilo podklad pro zodpovězení výzkumných otázek: Z celkového počtu deseti po sobě jdoucích hodin se poslech objevil

sedmkrát. Vzhledem k tomu, že četnost poslechů v hodinách výuky anglického jazyka není nijak stanovena či předepsána, můžeme jen subjektivně konstatovat, že se jedná o poměrně četné zastoupení poslechu jako řečové dovednosti – sedmdesát procent hodin zahrnovalo poslech. Tímto došlo k pokusu v podpoře poslechu s porozuměním u žáků na základní škole. Navíc, devadesát procent poslechů bylo intenzivních, a tím pádem můžeme konstatovat, že došlo dokonce k samotnému rozvoji poslechu s porozuměním.

Odpověď na druhou výzkumnou otázku je poněkud obsáhlá, poněvadž obsahuje analýzu poslechů z pohledu všech čtrnácti předem stanovených kritérií. Pokusím se tedy vybrat jen ty nejdůležitější kritéria. Co se týče tématu jednotlivých poslechů, všechny poslechy byly ve shodě s tématy předepsanými v kurikulárních dokumentech – CEFR a RVP ZV. Dále, délka všech intenzivních poslechů nepřesáhla doporučenou dobu trvání. Dalším pozitivním zjištěním bylo, že žáci ke všem poslechovým úkolům obdrželi od učitelky jasné instrukce, ba co víc, učitelka se doptáváním přesvědčovala, zda žáci instrukcím skutečně rozumí a tím pádem vědí, na co se mají během poslechu soustředit a jaký výstup se od nich očekává. V po-poslechové fázi žáci ve většině případů obdrželi zpětnou vazbu – věděli tedy, zda v plnění daného úkolu uspěli či nikoli.

Na druhou stranu, výzkum ukázal i určité nedostatky ve výuce poslechu. Jen polovina poslechů obsahovala před-poslechovou fázi. To znamená, že ve více než polovině případů nedošlo k inicializaci zájmu žáka o poslech, nebyla vyvolána jeho předchozí znalost o tématu, která by mu mohla pomoci ke zvládnutí úkolu. Co se týče typu poslechového textu, je třeba žáky připravit na různé typy textů. Hlavním důvodem je fakt, že jednotlivé typy (celkem pět) obsahují různé druhy mluvy, na kterou by si žáci měli zvykat. V pozorovaných hodinách byly použity jen dva typy – vyprávění a faktické informace. Za mnohem větší nedostatek však považuji fakt, že zdrojem všech sedmi poslechů byl jen Project book – tedy nahrávky z této učebnice. Hlavním důvodem je fakt, že téměř všechny poslechy v této učebnici jsou neautentické a předem napsané pro účely výuky jazyka. Mluva v nich je určitým způsobem umělá. Projev bývá pomalejší až monotónní, věty jsou kompletní a vždy dokončené, jazyk je detailně strukturovaný přesně jako v psaném projevu atd. Jinými slovy, předem napsaným textům chybí všechny znaky autentičnosti. Tím je myšleno například to, že autentický projev má relativně nestrukturovaný jazyk, v běžné mluvě se mluvčí navzájem přerušují a doplňují. Dále v autentickém projevu najdeme nedokončené věty s váháním, výplněmi řeči, a v neposlední řadě úplně jiné tempo řeči. Autentičnost úzce souvisí s tím, co odborníci považují jako cíl poslechu – předložit žákům řeč, kterou uslyší v běžném životě, tedy nepředepsanou, ale improvizovanou, a hlavně i řeč neformální, kterou v běžném životě rodilí mluvčí používají.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Brown, H. Douglas. 2014. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. 6th ed. New York: Pearson Education Inc.

Celce-Murcia, Marianne, Donna Brinton, and Marguerite Ann Snow. 2014. *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. 4th ed. Boston: National Geographic Learning.

Gavora, Peter. 2000. *Úvod do pedagogického výzkumu*. Brno: Paido.

Harmer, Jeremy. 2007. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Harlow: Longman.

Hedge, Tricia. 2000. *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Mackey, Alison, and Susan M. Gass. 2016. *Second Language Research: Methodology and Design*. 2nd ed. New York: Routledge.

Richards, Jack C., and Anne Burns. 2012. *Tips for Teaching Listening: A Practical Approach*. New York: Pearson Education, Inc.

Rixon, Shelagh. 1986. *Developing Listening Skills*. London: Macmillan publishers Ltd.

Rost, Michael. 2011. *Teaching and Researching Listening*. 2nd ed. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Scrivener, Jim. 2011. *Learning Teaching: The Essential Guide to English Language Teaching*. London: Macmillan Education.

Underwood, Mary. 1989. *Teaching Listening*. New York: Longman.

Ur, Penny. 2012. *A Course in English Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wilson, J. J. 2008. *How to teach listening*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Online sources:

Council of Europe. 2001. *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Strasbourg.

<https://rm.coe.int/16802fc1bf>

Council of Europe. 2018. *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Strasbourg.

<https://rm.coe.int/cefr-companion-volume-with-new-descriptors-2018/1680787989>

Hearing Insider. 2015. “*What is the difference between hearing vs listening.*” Accessed January 12, 2021. <https://www.hearinginsider.com/what-is-the-difference-between-hearing-vs-listening>

MŠMT. 2017. *Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání*. Praha: MŠMT. <http://www.msmt.cz/file/43792/60>

Siegel, Joseph. 2018. “*Listening for Gist.*” Published 2018.

https://www.academia.edu/36930159/Listening_for_Gist

University of Missouri. 1993. “*Listening: our most used communications skill.*” Accessed February 15, 2021. <https://extension2.missouri.edu/cm150>

APPENDICES

Appendix A *Observation sheet*53

Appendix A Observation sheet												
	Corresponding to CEFR/FEP BE	Pre-listening phase	Vocabulary pre-teaching	Clear instructions	Type of listening	Listening text type	Source of listening	Authentic/non-authentic	Extensive/intensive	Length of LP (min)	Post-listening phase	
											feedback	other
LP 1	YES	NO	NO	YES	Specific info	N/A	Textbook recording	Non-authentic	Intensive	1:36	YES	x
LP 2	YES	NO	NO	YES	Specific info	Recounts and narratives	Textbook recording	Non-authentic	Intensive	1:40	YES	x
LP 3	YES	YES	YES	YES	N/A	Information reports	Video in textbook	Non-authentic	Extensive	5:00	N/A	Questions and answers
LP 4	YES	YES	NO	YES	Specific info	Information reports	Textbook recording	Non-authentic	Intensive	1:30	NO	x
LP 5	YES	NO	NO	YES	Specific info	Recounts and narratives	Textbook recording	Non-authentic	Intensive	1:25	YES	x
LP 6	YES	NO	NO	YES	Specific info and list. in detail	N/A	Textbook recording	Non-authentic	Intensive	2:10	YES	Role play
LP 7	YES	YES	NO	YES	Specific info and list. in detail	N/A	Textbook recording	Non-authentic	Intensive	2:29	YES	Textbook exercise
LP	listening passage											