



05-4506832



pustaka.upsi.edu.my



Perpustakaan Tuanku Bainun
Kampus Sultan Abdul Jalil Shah



PustakaTBainun



ptbupsi

**USE OF AUDIO-VISUAL IN
LISTENING COMPREHENSION**

MAZLINA BINTI HUSIN



05-4506832



pustaka.upsi.edu.my



Perpustakaan Tuanku Bainun
Kampus Sultan Abdul Jalil Shah



PustakaTBainun



ptbupsi

**THIS DISSERTATION IS SUBMITTED IN
PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR
THE MASTER DEGREE IN EDUCATION**

**LANGUAGE FACULTY
UNIVERSITI PENDIDIKAN SULTAN IDRIS**

2006



05-4506832



pustaka.upsi.edu.my



Perpustakaan Tuanku Bainun
Kampus Sultan Abdul Jalil Shah



PustakaTBainun



ptbupsi



DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the work in this dissertation is my own accept for quotations and summaries which have been duly acknowledged.

07 APRIL 2006


.....

MAZLINA BT HUSIN

M20011000241





ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, my deepest gratitude to the Almighty and the most Merciful Allah for granting me the strength and patience to complete this dissertation, Alhamdulillah.

I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to my supervisor, En Abdul Ghani bin Abu, for his valuable guidance, advice, concern and time in supervising me in this research. His supervisory skill has helped me a lot. The completion of this research is incomplete without the special acknowledgement to Associate Professor Dr Alias b. Mohd Yatim for being a caring person with his invaluable guidance, interest and assistance. My gratitude to all the lecturers and staffs in the Language Faculty and Post Graduate Centre for their special nature in guidance students to success.

My appreciation is also extended to the authors of books, theses and articles whose works I consulted while preparing this research. I am also indebted to my colleagues in SMK Ahmad Boestamam, UPSI and LPM especially Abdul Mutalib, Asriyah, Haniza and Sam for their patience and tolerance and who have never failed to assist when called upon to do so.



Finally, I wish to express my humble appreciation to my dad, brothers and sisters who has constantly given me encouragement and unflagging support and love throughout my academic pursuit, and to my princess, Raja Alisa for sacrificing her innocent years without my fully presence.





ABSTRACT

The purpose of this experimental and control study was to test for listening comprehension of Malaysian nonnative speakers of English at SMK Ahmad Boestamam, Manjung, Perak via the audio-visual. A random sample was drawn from the population of Form Six students from the school selected. The samples are the candidate for MUET (Malaysia University English Test) exam which consist of four language components; Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. The sample was divided into two equal groups forming the experimental and the control groups. A t-test perform on the mean scores obtained by the two groups on listening comprehension indicated a significant difference at the .01 level.

Result of the study suggested that audio-visual enhances achievement in listening comprehension of the target language when native speakers are not readily available. The students performed better in the test result. Replications of the tests are recommended for other schools and institutions where English is taught as a second language.





ABSTRAK

Tujuan kajian eksperimental adalah untuk menguji kefahaman mendengar di kalangan pelajar Malaysia di SMK Ahmad Boestamam, Manjung, Perak melalui alat pandang dengar. Sampel-sampel dipilih secara rawak dari populasi pelajar tingkatan enam sekolah terpilih. Sampel adalah calon-calon MUET (Malaysian University English Examination) yang mengandungi empat komponen; Mendengar, Bertutur, Membaca dan Menulis. Sampel telah dibahagikan kepada 2 kumpulan iaitu kumpulan kajian dan kumpulan tekal. Skor min dalam ujian t yang diperolehi dari kedua-dua kumpulan tersebut telah menunjukkan terdapat perbezaan yang signifikan iaitu pada aras .01.

Keputusan kajian ini telah menunjukkan bahawa alat pandang dan dengar boleh menambah pencapaian pelajar dalam kefahaman mendengar bahasa yang dipelajari apabila petutur ibunda tiada. Kajian lanjutan adalah digalakkan kepada sekolah-sekolah lain dan juga institusi-institusi di mana Bahasa Inggeris diajar sebagai bahasa kedua.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration	Page ii
Acknowledgement	iii
Abstract	iv
Absrak	v
Content Page	vi
List of Tables	viii
List of Abbreviations	ix

CHAPTER I : BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction	1
1.1 Statement of Problem	15
1.2 The Objectives	15
1.3 Research Questions	16
1.4 Limitations of the Study	16
1.5 Definition of Terms	17

CHAPTER II : REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction	19
2.1 Listening and Viewing Comprehension: Theory and Applications	22
2.1.1 Learners and L2 Listening Comprehension	22
2.1.2 Background of Listening Comprehension Research	23
2.1.3 Changing Complexion of Issues and Factors in L2 Listening Comprehension	24
2.1.4 The Complementarily of Listening and Viewing	25
2.1.5 Essential Features of the Listening Process	27
2.2 Strategies for Comprehensive Listening	28
2.3 The Barrier of Effective Listening	31
2.3.1 The Physical Barriers: Listening Environment	32
2.3.2 The Personal Barriers: Emotion	32
2.4 Role of Video-Mediated Listening	36
2.4.1 Video-Mediated Listening	36
2.4.2 Defining Videotext	38
2.4.3 Cognitive Processes Related to Video-Mediated Listening	45
2.4.4 Comprehension of Dynamic Visual Media	46
2.4.5 Approaches to Second Language Listening Research	48
2.5 Role of Visual and Verbal Information in Language Learnin	48
2.5.1 Helping Beginners Learn with Video	50
2.5.2 Some Techniques for Teaching With Video	51

2.6	Early Film Research	53
2.6.1	Films Reduce Instruction Time	54
2.6.2	Films are Often Equivalent to Good Instructors	54
2.7	Early Television Research	56
2.8	Radio and Audio Recordings	58
2.8.1	Comparative Media Studies	62
2.9	Report of Review	68
2 10	Summary of Review	85

CHAPTER III : METHODS AND PROCEDURES

3.0	Introduction	88
3.1	Research Design	89
3.1.1	After-Only Research Design	89
3.1	Subject and Sample Selection	90
3.3	Selection of Topic	90
3.4	Testing Instrument	91
3.5	Development of Test	91
3.6	Administration	91
3.7	Procedure	92
3.8	Scoring	93
3.9	Method of Analysis Data	94
3 10	The Pilot Study	94

CHAPTER IV : DATA ANALYSIS

4.0	Introduction	96
	The Mean, Median, Mode and Range of the Experimental and Control Group	97
	Mean Difficulty of Experimental and Control Groups Q 1-10	108
	Mean Difficulty of Experimental and Control Groups Test 1-5	109
	Mean Discrimination of Experimental and Control Groups Q 1-10	110
	Mean Discrimination of Experimental and Control Groups T 1-5	111
	The Mean and T Value	112

CHAPTER V : SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0	Discussions of the Research Questions	114
5.1	Findings	115
5.2	Conclusions	117
5.3	Recommendations	117
5.4	Suggestions for Further Research	118
5.5	Closing	119

BIBLIOGRAPHY	120
---------------------	-----

APPENDIXES	126
-------------------	-----

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
4.1	The Mean, Median, Mode and Range of the Experimental and Control Groups	97
4.2	Percentage of Test Scores of Experimental and Control Groups for Q1	98
4.3	Percentage of Test Scores of Experimental and Control Groups for Q2	99
4.4	Percentage of Test Scores of Experimental and Control Groups for Q3	100
4.5	Percentage of Test Scores of Experimental and Control Groups for Q4	101
4.6	Percentage of Test Scores of Experimental and Control Groups for Q 5	102
4.7	Percentage of Test Scores of Experimental and Control Groups for Q 6	103
4.8	Percentage of Test Scores of Experimental and Control Groups for Q 7	104
4.9	Percentage of Test Scores of Experimental and Control Groups for Q 8	105
4.10	Percentage of Test Scores of Experimental and Control Groups for Q 9	106
4.11	Percentage of Test Scores of Experimental and Control Groups for Q 10	107
4.12	Mean Difficulty of Experimental and Control Groups Q1- 10	108
4.13	Mean Difficulty of Experimental and Control Groups Test 1 - 5	109
4.14	Mean Discrimination of Experimental and Control Groups Q1–10	110
4.15	Mean Discrimination of Experimental and Control Groups Test 1 - 5	111
4.16	The Mean and T Value	112

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

The following definitions are provided to clarify the terms used in this study.

ESL - English as second language

EFL - English as a foreign language

Script - The text of the audio portion of a videotape.

Transcripts - A copy of a narration of a videotape prepared after listening to the audiotape.

Facility Value - The degree of difficulty an item shows on the test as a whole.

Non-native Speakers - Speakers of English whose mother tongue is not English.

Communication Skills- Skills in communicating with others, by spoken, written or visual means.

Discrimination Index - The degree to which an item discriminates between the high achievers and the low achievers on the test as a whole.

Visually Dependent Scripts - Scripts which rely on the visual images on the screen for full comprehensibility.

Visually Independent Scripts - Scripts which can convey information without relying on the visual images on the screen.



CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction



The word language is derived from the Latin Lingua, meaning tongue. It is part of the cultural behaviour of people. Many linguists said that language is a completely human invention. A language actually begins when we have two or more people decide that certain sounds have the same meaning to both or to all of them and at this point, a language is born (Krashen, 1982).

Perhaps there was such a time when men did not have any sort of language at all. His only way of expressing himself then was by means of gestures and emotional cries, but he could not render more than a small number of ideas until these gestures and cries evolved into articulate speech.



Language is indispensable to human life. Oral language is man's major activity throughout his lifetime and is part of almost everything he does. The ability to communicate with members of his social group is crucial to group belonging whether national or international or to interpersonal relationships.

Man's acquisition of language starts right from birth. The infants in their first six months emit sounds in the form of crying, cooing and babbling. The babbling stage reaches its peak between six to ten month. The child produces a great variety of sounds. Many of those noises disappear later. However, vocalizing continues in non-communicative settings through the early period of language acquisitions.

A child has to go through certain stages in learning a language (Donaldson, 1979). The first stage is the holophrastic stage which begins to emerge between one to two years of age. At this stage, vocabulary size begins to increase rapidly toward the end of the holophrastic stage, from an average of about twenty words at eighteen months to about 300 words at twenty-four months (Donaldson, 1979).

Production of the first intelligible word is reported about ten months old. The one-word stage involves the word mama or papa. From the one word, it progresses to the two-word stage. At the two-word stage, the child usually has mama and another word which is salient to it like cookie or doggie. Thus at the two-word stage, the child can actually ask his mama for a cookie. Here, meaning is already established and we can understand what the baby wants.

The telegraphic stage begins at about three years when the child begins to use sentences that have grammatical features corresponding to adult language. When the child reaches the age of two to three years, he has already mastered the three-word stage

and his vocabulary has reached to about 800 – 1000 words. Now the child can convey the meaning more clearly, for example, “I want cookie,” and later on the four-word stage, “Mommy, I want cookie” (Donaldson, 1979).

The last stage is the transformational-morphemic stage which begins from three to five years. At this stage, the child produces sentences of all types. The variety, length and complexity of the sentences continue to increase from five years to maturity, and their vocabulary continues to grow with age (Donaldson, 1979).

In all these stages, a child is not able to utter words and sentences meaningfully until they have had the opportunity of hearing and understanding the words, phrases and sentences which others speak. Thus, in learning the language, the children must hear speech sounds which involve listening in conjunction with the perception of objects, events and situations (Donaldson, 1979).

Much of the helplessness of a newborn baby stems from his inability to communicate. He is unable to express his needs and wants in forms that others can understand. He is unable to comprehend the words, the gestures or written symbols of others. This helplessness is rapidly reduced in the early years of life as the child gains control over the muscles needed for the various communication mechanism.

The period from two to three years is one of rapid linguistic achievements. Playful use of language at this time has been reported by many psychologists. By the age of five, children seem to be able to talk and ask endless sorts of questions. It is all thanks to the language that already exists around him. It is there for him to acquire it stage by stage as he grows up. He has to adapt himself to the environment around him and use the language as it suits him.



Language changes through the passing of time. The sound made by the snips of a pair of scissors is entirely different to the ears of the Malays who will interpret it as *krik-krik*, while the modern Greeks will hear it as *kriks-kriks*. The sounds of the scissors in various languages that we hear are the same but differences in human reception and rendition make different groups hear the same sound in different fashions.

We all can listen well if we choose to do so. It is a matter of choice. We all find it comfortable to listen to message that agree with the things we believe in. Most of us are uncomfortable if we have to listen to messages extolling the virtues of things we oppose. We cannot stop people from talking about things that we would prefer not to hear, but we can choose to shut our ears to them. We use our ability to listen selectively to keep unwanted information at a distance (Dunkle, 1991).

Most of us talk easily and write quickly. We assume that communication is simple, but effective communication is not. Most of us assume that when we talk or write, we have communicated effectively, but how do we know how effective we have been? Most speakers rely on feedback from their listeners, such as facial expressions and body language, to let them know if they are not understood. How accurate is this information? All of us have learned to look attentive. We all know how to focus our eyes on the speaker, even nod or smile from time to time, and not listen to one word of what is being said. If the speaker asks, “Do you understand?” we may nod briskly, sending polite but false feedback (Krashen, 1994).

Teachers and students need to be aware of the barriers to effective communication (Nichols & Stevens, 1957). Many students enter college with bad listening habits reinforced throughout their school years. They need to know that listening awareness





broadens knowledge, improves appreciation for written words, develops language facilities, and offers therapeutic values at any stage in the developmental process.

The communication process is a unique sharing of thoughts and feelings that defines us as humans. It can be visualized as a dynamic circle because of the constant changing relationships among its various parts - the source, idea, message, medium, receiver and response. This process occurs within a communication environment. Most people can hear, but a good listener can be hard to find. Without effective listeners, the dynamic circle of communication is broken. When people do not listen well, they cannot provide useful feedback for speakers. Without such feedback, speakers miss valuable critical input for improving both content and delivery of a message.

Communication is most effective when listeners practice critical listening skills. How you listen and what you choose to hear also affect the communication process. Furthermore, listening as a member of a group differs from listening as a student in a lecture class (Dunkle, 1991).

Listening is a highly complex, interactive process by which spoken language is converted to meaning in the mind (Lundsteen, 1979). As this definition suggests, listening is more than just hearing, although children and adults often use the two terms, hearing and listening, synonymously.

Hearing is only one important component of listening. Hearing is a passive, generally involuntary process in which the brain receives and interprets sounds from the external environment. In contrast, listening is an active, voluntary process in which the listener deliberately pays attention to, interprets the meaning of, and responds to a message (Hettich, 1992).



It is the thinking or converting to meaning what one hears that is the crucial part of the listening process. Whether or not students comprehend and remember a message is determined by many factors. Some factors are operative before listening, others during and after. First, students need a background or prior knowledge about the topic addressed in the message. They must be able to relate what they are about to hear to what they already know and speakers can help provide some of the links. Second, as they listen, students must know how to use strategies or techniques to help them remember. They need to organize and chunk the information they receive. Then, after listening, they should somehow apply what they have heard so there is a reason to remember the information (Parkin, 1988).

Listening skills, especially critical listening are important because much of the mass communication to which we are exposed everyday contains irrelevant or misleading appeals. By enhancing our critical listening skill, we also become more aware of deceptions.

An effective listener concentrates on what is being said, identifies the main points and the most important information, and evaluates supporting information. A critical listener questions the ideas that she or he hears. Through questioning, the listener gains greater understanding (Parkin, 1988).

Different courses have different features that determine the listening activities of students. Powers (1985), indicates how well certain features described the courses they typically taught. Overall, each of three possible purposes of lectures was characterized as being at least somewhat descriptive of typical lectures, suggesting that classroom lectures often serve several purposes.



English and chemistry faculty were slightly more likely than psychology to use lectures to interpret material from an assigned text or reading.

Listening ability and concentration skills take an even greater drop for many students when they enter college. College students especially need to develop comprehensive and critical listening skills along with other learning skills. Research shows that college students spend more than 50 percent of their communication time listening (Barker, 1983). Students who listen effectively usually earn better grades and achieve beyond what their intelligence levels might have predicted. Research by Powers (1985), on lecture-related listening activities in six disciplines (engineering, psychology, English, chemistry, science and business) shows that 9 activities were rated by faculty as very important:



1. Identifying major themes or ideas.

2. Identifying relationship among major ideas.

3. Identifying the topic of a lecture.

4. Retaining information through note taking.

5. Retrieving information from notes.

6. Inferring relationships between information

7. Comprehending key vocabulary

8. Following the spoken mode of lectures

9. Identifying supporting ideas and examples



Different skills are used together with listening skill in the different disciplines. English and business faculty were found more likely to lecture in an interactive mode in order to facilitate discussion than were chemistry and computer science faculty, which more typically employed a non-interactive mode. English faculty also were more likely to report the frequent use of examples or anecdotes than were their colleagues in other disciplines, and chemistry faculty were more likely to use deductive style of presentation (Powers, 1985).

Why do we listen? Communication experts (Wolvin & Coakley, 1985), specify five specific purposes: discriminative listening, comprehensive listening, critical listening, therapeutic listening and appreciative listening. Discriminative listening allows a listener to become sensitive to arguments and language and to distinguish fact from opinion. Comprehensive listening helps a listener to understand a message, which is required in many instructional activities. Students need to determine the speaker's purpose and then organize the spoken information so as to remember it. Critical listening involves paying attention, hearing, comprehending, analyzing, evaluating, and finally accepting or rejecting a message. Therapeutic listening enables the listener to serve as a sounding board, without evaluating or judging the message. Appreciative listening is carried on for enjoyment or satisfaction (Wolvin & Coakley, 1979).

Listening is a prerequisite to learning a language and is considered one of the most fundamental skills in second language learning for in normal speech situations, auditory skills are closely linked to the oral skills. The spoken language differs in many ways from the written ones. The spoken language features many aspects of language not found in writing, such as the rise and fall in pitch, the stress and intonation (Baker, 1983).



In spoken language, a message can still be understood even though it may be mutilated or partially heard, because the visual context can often provide meaning to the content of the conversation. The human brain has a limited capacity to absorb all that is heard and seen. That is why features of language redundancy are essential for comprehending the spoken language. In real-life situations, the listener is able to use contextual clues to interpret what he hears (Conrad, 1981). However, problems may arise in the transmission of the message from communicator to receiver, if the message is transmitted with an accompaniment of irrelevant sound or noise, a part or some parts of the message may not be received by the listener. In the foreign-language situation, unfamiliar elements of the message may be perceived in much the same way of noise, so that some parts of it will be lost in the process of transmission to the receiver (Conrad, 1981).

In Malaysia, and in many other countries, listening in ESL is still the least stressed area in the classroom. In most cases, listening in ESL is taken for granted. It is not due to the lack of available materials for teaching the skills that listening is being neglected, but more so due to the fact that the institutions themselves do not have any such program for their students.

Teaching listening is not a part of their ESL syllabus. The failure to recognize the importance of ESL listening does not rest on the institutions alone but also on ESL teachers who know that listening is important but do not take the initiative to develop their resources to deal with it as they approach the subject. As such, the failure to upgrade the standard of our English proficiency to some extent must lie in our failure to make listening a part of our ESL syllabus. (Excellence in Education (2005, March 29). NST, 4).





Palmer's language theory (Blair, 1982), states that people who live in a foreign country tend to pick up the language of that country faster than those who do not. He gave an example of a French family who went to live in England. After the first year, the younger children were able to speak fluent English. The older children could also speak the language but the parents could only speak in broken English. Learning the language, according to Palmer (1982), is not only obtained by the use of appropriate methods but certain proficiency is also learned in its passive aspect. During the incubation period, the whole scale of linguistic matter can only be attained by this passive aspect that is, listening and reading. Active production of any linguistic material should never be encouraged or expected until a pupil has had opportunities of realizing this aspect of learning.



In Africa, Nida (Blair, 1982), says that natives learn other language with ease.

They learn by way of listening. He says that we could absorb a language by passive listening. Our ears help our brains with acoustic impressions and assimilate those sounds that the ears picked up. For the brain to work effectively we should provide our brain plenty to listen to, be relaxed and do not erect barriers to sound. Give the brain enough time and let it work while we do something else. He also says that passive listening could be effective if we supplement it with selective listening.

Selective listening can help us become familiar with the acoustic form of language. An early start should be made to listen to the intonation of the language, the tone, consonant sound and vowels. In the process of language learning priority should be given to listening. This includes listening to similar sounds, words and phrases and grammatical forms, for listening and speaking are very closely related processes.





The most striking aspect in the history of language teaching is perhaps the great diversity of language methodologies that came into being within these past few decades. All along, language teaching has been considered more an art rather than a science for the teaching of it depends largely on the intuitive, the skills and the convictions of the teacher. It is this element of human nature and behaviour that makes it most difficult to treat with scientific rigor. However, in the later methods and approaches to language teaching, establishment of scientific disciplines seem to be an important feature.

The revolution of technology has led to changes in foreign language teaching, but in many areas, the use of modern technology has not been fully exploited. The use of videotape in the classroom may require new approaches to the teaching of English as a second language (Porter & Robert, 1981).

In countries where English is the spoken language, ESL students are taught by native speakers who provide the students with live native models. However, in countries like Malaysia where native models are hard to come by, language laboratories are an important asset.

In recent years, technology in the form of videotape has offered teachers the potential of improving their techniques and methods of teaching, especially in English as a second language (ESL) or as a foreign language (EFL). In Malaysia, very few schools are equipped with the language lab because of the cost factor.

The introduction of videotape and TV has helped to bridge this gap. English language materials can be taped from various local TV channel or download from internet. Although video media has been used throughout second language programs for several decades, little research has been conducted to specifically investigate how visual



elements influence the second language listening comprehension process. In particular, conceptualizations of visual support for the understanding of aural elements remain weak.

The lack of investigation into video-mediated second language listening comprehension is cause for concern for a number of reasons. Long used as a medium for listening instruction, language teachers are still nonetheless frustrated by the absence of sound theoretical principles on which to develop video-mediated courses (Baltova, 1994). For those interested in utilizing video as a mode of presentation in testing, the small amount of work done pertaining to video-based listening comprehension has stalled the principled development of video-mediated assessment instruments (Chung, 1994). Most importantly, the rapidly growing use of multimedia applications for language instruction motivates the need for close investigation.

Historically, the use of dynamic visual media for second language instruction began in the 1930s with the release of a Disney Studio film intended for use with nonnative speakers of English (Kelly, 1969). Despite its early promise however, film never gained widespread acceptance as an effective instructional medium because of difficulties in usage and expense (Altman, 1989).

Soon after television broadcast services were introduced the mid-1940s, closed circuit television was made available for foreign language teaching (Kelly, 1969). Nonetheless, language teachers generally remained skeptical of telecourses for the next few decades, and it was not until the introduction of accessible video equipment in the late 1970s and early 1980s that dynamic visual media was used widely in the classroom (Altman, 1989).

Videotape can play an important role in the teaching of ESL for listening and other language skills both at elementary and secondary levels. Videotape is a valuable and important aid for language teaching for it presents reasonable facsimiles of the spoken language and therefore it has a psychological effect which is distinct from the other form of media. It can be used as a tool for communication as well as expression. Images projected on the screen by the video signify immediacy and give one the sense of involvement which is impossible with other forms of media. It not only presents perfect models of the spoken language in countries where native speakers are not readily available, but it also brings the outside world into the classroom and make teaching more interesting, effective, and meaningful both for the teacher and the students.

The videotape can play an important role in sound production. Using videotape to magnify the image of native speakers making speech sounds may prove valuable. Magnification of the image also establishes direct contact between the native model and the student by providing the learner with a dynamic image of the target language in use. Combining visual images with sound can lead the student from linguistic competence to communicative competence through an understanding of facial expressions, gestures, and the correct manipulation of idiomatic and grammatical structures.

Videotape can synthesize the many aspects of a good lesson presentation and can be used to inject cultural materials in the classroom (Odum, 1979). The videotape may be the ideal means for creating a good learning environment and developing listening and other language skills. The learning setting, the accompanying pictorial series and the fact that the spoken text is the only source for homework information provide the incentive to developing listening skills.

One of the most important features of videotape is the opportunity to review the spoken material and to build one's confidence for comprehending the unremitting voice of the speaker. For the weakly motivated and the low ability student, language learning via videotape can be made more effective and result in better performance, for videotape provides a model for them to imitate (Parkin *et al.*, 1988). Videotape presents perfect models of the spoken language in countries where native speakers are not readily available, and videotape may make a perfect tool for testing comprehension of foreign language students when listening to native speakers.

Videotape can provide the teacher and the students with products that can be easily referred to when needed, especially in areas such as listening comprehension and oral tests. Videotape provides the basis for flexibility in scheduling tests. This could mean a more efficient use of time on the part of both the tester and the testees. The videotape is a referable product. Therefore, the test materials on the videotape chosen for the test can be presented by a person outside the testing agency (Garza, 1991).

A pilot study using videotape to increase listening comprehension of non-native speakers when listening to native speakers of English at SMK King Edward VII (2) Taiping, Perak, showed that the students who watched and listened to the videotape fared better in their test scores than those who only listened to the audio mode without the visual representation on the screen. As such there is a need for the researcher to replicate her study at the pre-university level (MUET candidates) to find out whether such results also hold true for the latter.



1.1 Statement of Problem

The problem that this study addresses is whether or not videotape is more effective than audiotape when comparing prepared tests for listening comprehension of pre-university students (MUET candidates) learning English as second language. MUET (Malaysian University English Test) is a compulsory exam for the form six students. There are four language components that are tested in MUET (Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking). In testing listening, students are to listen to the audiotape and answer comprehension questions.

1.2 The Objectives

The objectives of this study was to determine if there were any meaningful differences in scores obtained from evaluating the listening comprehension of Malaysian pre-university students at SMK Ahmad Boestamam, Sitiawan, Perak between those students who watched and listened to the videotape and those who only listened to the audiotape without the visual images on the screen.



1.3 Research Questions

1. Were the ESL pre-university students at the school sampled who watched and listened to the videotape in the experimental group different in measures of their listening comprehension from those ESL students in the control group who listened to the audiotape without the visual images on the screen?
2. Was there any significant difference in the means of percentage scores of listening comprehension tests for the experimental and the control groups?

A set of five tests of listening comprehension was designed with ten items each for a total of fifty items. All the items are from scripts which were judged to be visually independent. A visually independent script is a script which can convey information without relying on the visual images on the screen.

The test formats used for listening comprehension were the multiple-choice content questions, true-false items, and supply the answer items. The different types of test formats were chosen because they could provide a better insight into the students' understanding of the listening comprehension tests.

1.4 Limitations of the Study

Although associations were established between the relationship of achievement and the instruments used in this study, they do not necessarily mean causation. Factors such as the unequal distribution of races where most of the subjects were Malays should also be



taken into consideration. There were also unforeseen external factors such as (a lack of behaviour response, example: attention span and attitude towards the test) within both the experimental and the control groups which may have affected the results of this study.

1.5 Definition of Terms

In this study, there are a few words and terms that need to be explained in order to give better understanding to the research.

Audio

It is a comb form of hearing or sound. Audio provides an exceptionally useful variety of resources for learning (Oxford Advanced Learning Dictionary, 2004).

Visual

Visual concerned with or used in seeing, for instance images or effects. Visual support comprehension and form meaning correspondence, both of which contribute to higher levels of learners motivation. It is seen to be complimentary factors that work in conjunction alongside with aural to influence the active process of listening comprehension. Nonetheless, it is a widely held belief amongst second language researchers that visual simply provides a means of support to listeners as they decode the aural channel. Rubin (1995), proposes that visual offers assistance to listeners primarily through the display of props, action and interaction



Listening Comprehension

Wolvin and Croakley's (1985: 74), define listening as "..... The process of receiving, attending to, and assigning meaning to aural stimuli. Listening entails complex interpretive processes". An intricate web of situational variables interacts to determine what meanings are derived in conversation. Listening is a complex activity that is the cornerstone of language acquisition (Krashen, 1994).

Listening comprehension is the ability to decode aural elements (Kellerman, 1992). Rubin (1995:7), defines the listening comprehension as "..... An active process in which listeners select and interpret information which comes from auditory and visual cues in order to define what is going on and what the speakers are trying to express". Listening Comprehension requires learners to listen to longer stretches of discourse for the purpose of getting specific information from the aural text. It requires fuller understanding of lengthier aural texts for the purpose of in-depth understanding. This form of listening is especially well suited for multimedia in that the learner, unlike in real-time situations, can control the rate and sequence of the aural presentation.