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Developing Vocabulary Learning through Effective Listening and Appropriate Note-Taking

The Case of Second Year Students at the University Des Frères Mentouri, Constantine

Thesis submitted in candidacy of the Degree of "Doctorat LMD" in "Didactique des Langues Etrangères"

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To my father, my mother, my sisters: Samah, Chahrazad, and to my brother Chamseddine

To the memory of my sister Zeyneb

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ABSTRACT

From a student's perspective, lessons are usually taken to be learned for the day of the exam; for that, we believe that students need more practice concerning both developing listening skills and taking notes skills. To reach a good level in both, we can talk about developing vocabulary acquisition. The experiment is done in three levels. The first level is developing the listening skill of students through different types of listening: tape-recorders and teacher's talk, the aim by the latter is to make the students get important information from teachers' body language and not just verbal language and then compare it to the other types of listening. Taking notes is in the second level because after students become familiar with the listening skills, they will take notes. Making students effective listeners does not mean that they are going to take appropriate notes. During listening, students cannot take every single word the teacher says, so they are obliged to use abbreviations and symbols, that is why we aim to teach the different note-taking skills. Even if the notes taken by students are correct and readable at the moment, after a period of time, they are not going to be as readable as the first time, for that we give a regular memorization of lessons. The third level is vocabulary acquisition. In this level, we focus on both listening and note taking in the sense that students have acquired both skills, and then they have to apply what they have acquired on vocabulary. The research aims at giving importance to the connection between what students learn in different modules. In the current experiment, we take the connection between oral expression and written expression modules, especially that any topic when it is discussed orally is different from when it is written. One difference could be vocabulary, the aim here is to raise students' awareness of these differences. In order to achieve that, two hypotheses are put. If students use listening strategies, they will take appropriate notes, and if students take notes in an organized way and follow

them with memorization, their acquisition of vocabulary will be better and last long. The vocabulary used by students is given by the teacher, but practised by students. In general, students used the vocabulary given in writing their essays. The results showed good performances by students and developed through the fulfillment of the research. Students' notes started to be organized and clear, and their most used method is the outline method because of its easiness and clearness. Students, also, developed their use of abbreviations and symbols and started to use the same abbreviation for the same word.

Keywords: taking notes, listening comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, learning strategies.

List of Abbreviations

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

L2: Second Language

L1: First Language

NS: Native Speakers

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. Statement of the Problem

   Todd (1987) argues that no definition of vocabulary can be satisfactory. However the Oxford Dictionary 2nd Ed (1991) defines vocabulary as *"the total number of words in a language"*, and the Longman Dictionary (1995) as *"all the words that someone knows, learns or uses"*. These two definitions can give an idea about the meaning of vocabulary.

   To learn vocabulary, many strategies can be used. A learning strategy is defined as *"specific actions, behaviours, steps, techniques [or thoughts] ... used by students to enhance their own learning"* (Scarcella and Oxford: 1992, 63). Learning strategies are divided into two main headings: Direct and Indirect strategies (Oxford: 1990). *"Direct strategies involve directly the target language... they require mental processing of the language"* (ibid, 37). The direct strategies are classified into three subclasses: memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies, on the other hand, are useful because they manage the learning process without having a direct relation with the language. This heading is divided, too, into three subclasses which are metacognitive, affective and social strategies. One of these strategies is taking notes. In note taking, the notebook is a very important element. McCarthy (1990) defines a vocabulary notebook as: *"... probably the most common form of written student record"* (127). Notebooks allow a permanent record for future use, regardless of the organisation whether it is word trees, mind maps, tables, bubbles or drawings (Thomas and Mathews, 2007). Taking notes is a part of a sequence, it is proceed by listening/ reading and followed by speaking/writing (Baily: 2003). In our research, it is more about listening and speaking. Even if taking notes helps in language learning, there are some affecting factors as motivation and age. Learning vocabulary can be both explicit or implicit. Explicit learning is synonymous to intentional learning which means learning with attention,

whereas implicit or incidental learning is without attention, and in both cases, taking notes is required. In learning vocabulary, the teachers' role is important in the sense that they may facilitate students' understanding by verbal language or non verbal language, including the body language, in order to make the students acquire the vocabulary mainly in incidental learning of vocabulary.

The listening skill is one of the four major skills in language learning, which is said to be the skill which precedes the speaking skill. In learning settings, students may have two different roles while listening; it can be interactive when students share with the teacher their opinions; or non-interactive when students just listen without any interaction. This is called by Gary (2001) collaborative and non-collaborative interaction, respectively. While listening in both cases, students can take notes and use them for later recall (which is the problem in our research). Students seem to understand all the lessons in Written Expression classes i.e. what concerns the theories. But, when it comes to performance in exams, most of the students get unsatisfactory results for them and for their teachers. In grading students' copies, teachers take into consideration grammar (articles, prepositions, tenses...), the structure and the vocabulary used (which is the independent variable in our research).

Vocabulary seems to be very important in productive skills (speaking/ writing), but students meet new words and expressions in all modules. When the vocabulary met is not well understood (both literal and collocation meanings) and practised, it will never be active vocabulary even if it is considered as passive vocabulary. In this research, the aim is to make the words taken by students (passive vocabulary) acquired and used automatically i.e. produced by students, like the vocabulary they are used to say or write. The new vocabulary acquired by students is normally practiced orally by giving

presentations by each student, but because of time and large groups of students, the practice will be by giving written compositions.

The second problem is that students never take satisfactory notes from their lectures, but they usually require a handout from the teacher. Students' demand for teachers' handouts can be justified of many reasons like they forget the meanings of the abbreviated words, they forget to take extra notes, or they want to compare their notes with those of the teacher.

In this study, we try to answer the following questions: do students really take reliable notes? Do they know how to take notes, or just they do it in a random way? Do they keep the same form of abbreviations and symbols? Do they make differences between important and unimportant information? Do students memorize their notes? And do students rewrite their notes? The focus on listening skills is because the more we move and be advanced in learning English, the more we need to take notes during lectures. The second reason is that taking notes while reading has been the object of several researches with controversial debates and was taught during first and second years in this system (LMD) where students use skimming, scanning, get the key words...etc.

2. Aims of the Study

Since students at university find some difficulties while they take notes, their notes are less organized, and in future use, they find difficulties in interpreting them. In addition to this, students may also find difficulties in listening comprehension, especially in vocabulary and when the piece of listening is delivered by native speakers. The aims of the study are first, to develop the listening skills abilities of students through attentive listening (to forget about distractions); second, to acquire the note-

taking skills and make the students aware of the process of taking notes; and third, to acquire new vocabulary through taking notes, and to make passive vocabulary active one through the practice in the Written Expression module.

3. Hypotheses

From both the statement of the problem and aims of the study, students' main difficulties are in both listening comprehension and taking notes. So, we hypothesize that:

1. If students use listening strategies, they will take appropriate notes, and
2. If students take notes in an organised way and follow that with memorisation, their acquisition of vocabulary will be better and last long.

4. Means of Research

In the current thesis, we use two types of investigation: a questionnaire and an experimental study. The sample chosen to take part in the research is Second Year LMD students at the Department of English at University "Des Frères Mentouri". The questionnaire is composed of different questions which are arranged according to the thesis variables. It is delivered first because from the answers of students we are going build up our experiment.

Concerning the experimental study, as a pre-test, we ask students to take notes; we will give them a lesson about taking notes, which serves all the modules. In the module of Oral Expression, a notebook is required where students are going to take notes while listening, and then a number of words are going to be identified by the teacher. During the second session of Oral Expression, students are going to present a composition of the topic discussed, that is to say, they are going to rewrite their notes of the first session

with the use of the vocabulary identified in the first session. Students, then, are going to interact with each other about whether the use of words is appropriate or not.

The test delivered to students follows the same steps like the ones which in the experiment, that is to say we measure if students in the experimental group benefited from the lesson of taking notes and the practice they used to do during the experiment and compare it with the results of the control group.

5.   Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is divided into six chapters. The first three chapters are devoted to the literature review of the shortcomings.

The first chapter is entitled "Vocabulary Learning/Acquisition". It contains definitions of vocabulary, incidental vs. Intentional learning, vocabulary learning and taking notes, vocabulary learning and listening comprehension, learning strategies, types of learning strategies, and teacher and students' awareness. The second chapter: "The Listening Skill and Listening Comprehension", deals with the definition of the listening skill, approaches and methods to teach the listening skill, characteristics variables in listening comprehension, and models in listening comprehension. Teacher's talk and listening comprehension include definition of teacher's talks, characteristic of teacher's talk and teacher's body language. The third chapter is "The Role of Taking Notes in Vocabulary Acquisition". The chapter is devoted to discuss definition of taking notes, process of taking notes: before, during and after class. Abbreviations and symbols are discussed from different views and approaches of taking notes like the outline method, Cornell method and mapping method.

The last three chapters are devoted to the research work. Chapter Four defines the population, the sample and discusses the Students' Questionnaire. Chapter Five is

devoted to the discussion of the experiment which is made of on two parts: the pre-test where discussing one type of essays, then in other post-tests the discussion of other types of essays like the comparison and contrast. The last chapter in this research is devoted to the pedagogical implications and suggestions.

CHAPTER ONE

Vocabulary Learning/Acquisition

"Without grammar, very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed"

Wilkins (1972: 111)

Introduction

Vocabulary is the basis of any learning. Without vocabulary, nothing can be learned or understood. For that reason, it is worthy to devote the following chapter to discuss its importance.

1.1. Definition of Vocabulary

There are different terms used to mean vocabulary, mainly word and lexeme.

1.1.1. The Word

The word, from an orthographic point of view, is *"… any sequence of letters (and a limited number of other characteristics such as hyphen and apostrophe) bounded on either side by space or punctuation mark."* (Carter, 1992: 4); whereas from a semantic point of view, the word is the smallest meaningful unit of language (Carter, ibid). According to Bloomfield (cited in Takač, 2008), the word is the smallest free form which has meaning when it stands alone. The same idea is confirmed by McCarthy (1994, cited in Takač, 2008: 5) who argues that the word is *"a free meaningful unit of language, must contain at least one potentially freestanding morpheme."*

Richards (1976) and Nation (2001) claim that students should know a list of things before they can say that they know a word. These include the meaning of the word, its spoken and written forms, what word parts it has, any prefix, suffix and root forms, its grammatical behaviours (its word class), its collocation, its register, what associations it has (words similar to it but opposite in meaning), what connotations it has, and its frequency. The word, too, can be a noun (like table, pen, book, etc.), a verb (like to go, to sit, to work, etc.), and adjective (like good, fast, nice, etc.), an adverb (like very, so, etc.), an article (the and a), a preposition (like to, for, from, etc.), a conjunction (like

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and, or, through, etc.), a pronoun (like he, she, them, etc.), and an interjection (like oh, mm, etc.) which are called word classes or parts of speech.

According to Nagy and Scott (2000: 273), knowing a word is knowing what to do with it, that is to say, *"a person who knows a word can recognize it, and use it, in novel contexts, and uses knowledge of the word, in combination with other types of knowledge, to construct meaning from the text"* (Hirai, Borrego, Garza and Kloock, 2010: 50).

1.1.2. The Lexeme

The term "lexeme" includes orthographic, phonological, grammatical and semantic features of a word, in addition to inflections, polysemy, compounds, phrasal verbs and idioms. The lexeme or lexical item is the smallest unit in the meaning of a language and is a part of lexicography which is the study of dictionaries making (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). The lexeme remains one lexeme even if other language elements like the 's' of the third person singular or the 'ed' of the past, are added to it. All the forms *gives, gave, give* belong to the same lexeme *give* (Richards and Schmidt, ibid). It is the same case with idioms; for example, the expression 'pass away' is taken as one lexeme since it carries the same meaning which is 'to die'. The term lexicography is defined as:

> *[A]n art and a craft. It is also a profession and a hobby, a*
> *scholarly and commercial enterprise, and an academic*
> *discipline. It is, if further, a longstanding cultural practice*
> *and an integral part of the intellectual tradition in literate*
> *societies* (Kirkness, 2005: 58).

This definition explains that lexicography is not just writing lists of words, synonyms and antonyms in a book which is called the dictionary, before it becomes a ready

dictionary to use, lexicographers go through many stages in order to have the final copy from gathering data, to use appropriate words and illustrations, to define the entries and finally to be ready to print.

The dictionary is *"regarded as the prototypical work of lexical reference"* (Kirkness, 2005: 59). It can be monolingual, bilingual and multilingual. The monolingual dictionary is the dictionary which uses just one language to give spelling, pronunciation, synonyms and antonyms of the word. Bilingual dictionaries are the ones which use definitions, synonyms, antonyms and illustrations from and to both languages. Multilingual dictionaries contain more than two languages.

Thesaurus, on the other hand, is defined by Kirkness (2005: 63) as:

A word book that classifies and groups lexical items of a language, variety, or subject area according to sense relations, especially synonyms, in semantic sets and arranges and presents them alphabetically and/or thematically conceptually

Thesaurus is defined by Meyer (2009) as a special dictionary which provides synonyms for main entries it contains. Meyer (ibid) adds that the first thesaurus in the English language was *"Roget's Thesaurus"* in 1852 and was written by Roget himself. Now, many thesauruses take the same name "Roget", but they do not have any relation with the original version.

Language teachers ask their students to have dictionaries (monolingual or bilingual) during their learning process. They do so in order to enhance their vocabulary bulk.

1.2. Approaches to Vocabulary

Vocabulary teaching/leaning has witnessed different changes from one approach to another, which are made according to the objectives of the approach. The place of vocabulary will be identified in the main language approaches/methods.

1.2.1. The Grammar-Translation Method

The vocabulary learned was "obsolete", that is to say, it was selected according to its relationship to grammar rules (Rivers, 1981; cited in Espinosa, 2003). Coady (1995) argues that vocabulary was a focusing point in the Grammar Translation method. Rote learning was preferred in learning vocabulary lists, which are taken from literary texts and then students prepare them to translate. In the nineteenth century, vocabulary teaching used definitions and etymology, and using words in both languages: the mother and the target languages (Zimmerman, 1997, cited in Espinosa, 2003).

The Grammar-Translation method was criticized because of its neglect to the oral language (listening and speaking).

1.2.2. The Reform Movement

Sweet established the reform movement as a "counter- reaction" to the Grammar-Translation method. The main focus was given to phonetics and transcription instead of learning lists of words. Sweet (1964: 97; cited in Espinosa: 2003) explains that:

> *Although language is made up of words, we do not speak in words, but in sentences. From a practical, as well as scientific, point of view, the sentence is the unit of language, not the word.*

According to Sweet (ibid), vocabulary is learnt in different levels. In the grammatical stage, students study basic vocabulary, whereas in the idiomatic stage, they

study vocabulary deeper. The other levels (literary and archaic) are learned at university level (Zimmerman, 1997).

Richards and Rodgers (1986: 7) explain the principles for the Reform Movement as:

1.   The study of spoken language;

2.   Phonetic training in order to establish good pronunciation habits;

3.   The use of conversation   texts and dialogues to introduce conversational phrases and idioms;

4.   An introductive approach to the teaching of grammar; and

5.   Teaching new meanings through establishing associations with the mother tongue.

1.2.3.   The Direct Method

The nineteenth century witnessed the birth of the Direct Method by Gouin and others. The major claim of the Direct Method is that the process of learning a second language is the same as that of the first language. Therefore, the vocabulary taught is everyday vocabulary; concrete vocabulary is learned through objects and actions, whereas abstract vocabulary is learned through association of ideas (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

According to Richards and Rodgers (1986: 9), Berlitz never used the term direct method, but he used the Berlitz method, explaining the basic principles as follows:

1.   classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language;

2.   only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught;

3.   oral communication skills were build up in a carefully graded progression organized around question- and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes;

4.   grammar was taught inductively;

5.   new teaching points were introduced orally;

6.   concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstrations, objects, and pictures, abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas;

7.   both speech and listening comprehension were taught; and

8.   correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized.

1.2.4. The Reading Method

Vocabulary learning, for the first time, was considered as one major part in second language learning. West (1930: 514) argues:

> *[T]he primary thing in leaning a language is the acquisition of vocabulary, and practice in using it (which the same thing as 'acquiring'). The problem is what vocabulary; and more of these 'modern textbooks in common use in English schools' have attempted to solve the problem.*

In learning vocabulary, West (ibid) prefers the use of frequency lists. The same idea is shared by Wesche and Paribackht (1996) who argue that these lists are liked because the more frequently the word is; the more students learn it. Even if these are advantageous on the one hand, Nation (1990, cited in Espinoza, 2003) argues that, there are problems with word frequency lists like:

1. some words do not occur in those lists,

2. some words are not suitable for beginners, and

3. there is always disagreement about some words which are of high frequency in one list but of low frequency in another.

1.2.5.   The Audio-Lingual Method

The Audio-lingual method appeared in the 1940's. It considers language learning as a habit formation, i.e. stimulus-response which is based on Skinner's behaviorism theory. Since the aim of this method is to utter sentences correctly, students were given simple and familiar words not to lose concentration on the target language (Richards and Rivers, 2001).

The major principles of audio-lingualism are summarized as follows:

1. Foreign language learning is seen as habit formation. The mistakes are minimized when rehearsing and performing dialogues.

2. Language skills are learned effectively in spoken forms before in written forms/ aural-oral meaning is needed to help developing other skills.

3. Explanations of new language for students to acquire them, which help them in turn to develop perception of analogies.

4. Different meanings of words are learned through exposure and cultural context rather than in isolation. This means that teaching language necessitates teaching cultural aspects of the target language. (Rivers, 1964:19-20).

1.2.6. The Natural Approach

Krashen and Terrell (1983, 155) explain the Natural Approach about this approach as:

> *[A]cquisition depends crucially on the input being comprehensible. And comprehensibility is dependent directly on the ability to recognize the meaning of key elements in the utterance. Thus, acquisition will not take place without comprehension of vocabulary.*

The basis of the Natural Approach is like that of the Direct Method, in the sense that acquisition of language for second/foreign language learners and that of a child are alike. However, the approach puts less emphasis on *"teacher monologues, direct repetition, and formal questions and answers, and less focus on accurate production of the target language sentences"* (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 129). Richards and Rodgers (ibid) argue that the Natural Approach is evolutionary rather than revolutionary like the Communicative Language Teaching, that is to say emphasis is out on comprehensible and meaningful activities rather than uttering perfect grammar.

1.2.7. Communicative Language Teaching

In the Communicative Language Teaching approach, the direction shifted from the command of structures towards communicative proficiency. Vocabulary is not the explicit attention in communicative language research because second language acquisition is considered as first language acquisition which is the case of vocabulary acquisition (Espinoza, 2003). Richards and Rodgers (1986: 71) argue that Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has more eclectic and theoretical base which would be more an approach than a method. The CLT approach main characteristics are:

1)   language is a system for the expression of meaning;

2)   the primary function of language is for interaction and communication;

3)   the structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses; and

4)   the primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

Some of the activities related to the CLT are functional communication activities and social interaction activities, as Littlewood (1981) puts them. The former include

activities such as students compare two pictures or making similarities and differences between two pictures, whereas the latter include activities like conversation and discussion activities, dialogues, role plays and debates.

The communicative language classroom plays an important role. It is considered to be the only place for language learners where they use the target language since it is regarded as a picture of the native speakers' real world (Littelewood, 1981). In the communicative classroom, both the teacher and the learners have roles. The teacher in the communicative classroom does not do all as in the other approaches, that is to say, s/he may leave the learners do all unless they show disagreement or confusion. The teacher, here, gives response or solution. Or, when students fee unable to solve a particular problem or difficulty, s/he gives advice or guide students. (ibid)

Students, as part of the communicative classroom, are the responsible for the classroom interaction. Students' self direction of classroom interaction may provoke tension and difficulty, and students may lack confidence. For that, teachers are asked to start gradually to leave students to monitor the activities until they gain confidence (Littlewood, 1981).

In the communicative classroom, the main activities are simulations/role play. In the beginning, students are asked to perform role plays and dialogues provided by the teacher about situations happen in real life. Then, students may develop language and create their own dialogues where they give preferences and suggestions. The following figure represents the shift from pre-communicative activities to communicative activities in the communicative classroom.

Control   performing memorized dialogues

                     contextualized drills

              cued dialogues

              role-playing

Creativity   improvision
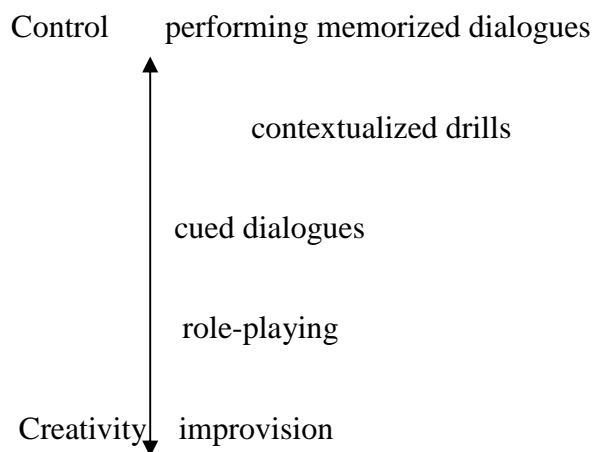
Figure 1.1. The Shift from the Pre-communicative Activities to Communicative Activities.

The cued dialogues are the key to the shift to communicative activities, that is to say, in cued dialogues, teachers have to consider the meaning of dialogues and not the language used since students use their own language, which is not the case in the pre-communicative activities.

The following table summarizes all what has been said about vocabulary by different approaches/methods.

Teaching Method	Vocabulary Role
The Grammar-Translation Method	• Vocabulary is central • Obsolete vocabulary taken from literary samples and selected according to its ability to illustrate grammatical rules. • Use of bilingual vocabulary lists as instructional materials.
The Reform Movement	• Phonetics and transcription are given a more prominent role than vocabulary. • Simple and useful words are taught at different levels. • Words are learnt within a context and isolated word lists are not provided, but when a thorough study of them within a context has been undertaken.
The Direct Method	• Everyday vocabulary taught within no translation. • Concrete, simple and familiar vocabulary was explained with demonstration objects and pictures. • Abstract vocabulary was taught through association of ideas.
The Reading Method	• Vocabulary considered to be one of the most important aspects of language learning. • Advice to use word-frequency lists.
The Audio Lingual Method	• Simple and familiar vocabulary taught to avoid students' distraction from target structures. • Vocabulary is seen as a set of items which should fill in the slots of the different sentence frames in order to make the drills possible. • Good language habits and exposure to the language itself, will lead to vocabulary increase. • Vocabulary role is downgraded and consequently the role of grammar is overemphasized.

The Communicative Language Teaching	• Vocabulary is not a primary concern. It was assumed that L2 vocabulary will take care of itself in the process of L2 acquisition. • Main focus: appropriate use of language varieties (i.e. notions and functions) and emphasis on language as discourse.
The Natural Approach	• Vocabulary is relevant, since it is an important element to achieve communication. • L2 vocabulary can be acquired effortless, in the same way as L1 vocabulary acquisition process. • No need for direct vocabulary instruction, since students will learn vocabulary from context by reading extensively.

Table 1.1. Review of the Role of Vocabulary within Language Teaching (Espinosa, 2003: 104).

1.3.   Second Language Vocabulary Learning

In order to acquire new words, learners of a second language have to use some learning strategies depending on the situation, second language vocabulary strategies and developing language awareness.

1.3.1.   Learning Strategies

Strategies are tools used by students in order to help them to solve any learning problem.

1.3.1.1. Definition of Strategies

Originally, the word strategy comes from the Latin word *"strategia"* which means *"generalship or the art of war"* (Oxford, 1990). A different but related word is used to mean the tools, which are used to the success of the strategies is the term *"tactic"* (ibid). Chamot (2005: 112; cited in Brown, 2007) defines strategies as *"procedures that*

facilitate a learning task.… Strategies are most often conscious and goal driven." (132).
Brown (ibid) relates the word strategy to the specific *"attacks"* which are used by individuals when they face problems.

According to Oxford, the meaning of the term strategy, which is linked to the war in the first place, is of no use in the recent time. Scarcella and Oxford (1992) refer to strategies as:

> *Specific actions, behaviours, steps, techniques [or thoughts] -*
>
> *such as seeking out conversations, partners, or giving oneself*
>
> *encouragements to tackle a difficult language task- used by*
>
> *students to enhance their own learning (63).*

In a broad term, the term strategy is *"a plan that is consciously aimed at meeting a goal"* (Oxford, 2003: 274).

This idea was justified by Rees-Miller (1993, 1994) that is to say, teachers should teach strategies in isolation but they should take into consideration some elements like learners' cultural backgrounds, age, educational background, life experience, active factors and learners' and teachers' beliefs about language learning. Chamot and Rubin (1994; cited in Anderson, 2005) argue the same point that teachers should put learning strategies as one element in a process. Nunan (1996: 41cited in Anderson, 2005: 763) focuses on the importance of strategy instruction in the language classroom saying, *"[l]anguage classroom should have a dual focus, not only teaching language content but also on developing learning processes as well"*. According to Saville-Troike (2005), adding strategy instruction to second language learners will empower them and make them control their learning process. Cohen (2011: 683) suggests that strategy instruction should be structured in the following characteristics:

• raising awareness of the strategies that learners are already using;

• presenting and modeling strategies so that learners become increasingly aware of their own thinking and learning processes;

• provoking multiple practice opportunities to help learners more toward autonomous use of the strategies through gradual withdrawal of the teacher scaffolding; and

• getting learners to evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies used and any efforts that they have made to transfer these strategies to new tasks.

1.3.1.2. Taxonomies of Strategies of Learning Strategies

There are two main taxonomies related to strategies in language learning, which are O'Malley and Chamot taxonomy and Oxford taxonomy. The two taxonomies are discussed in the following sections.

- **O'Malley and Chamot Taxonomy** (1990; cited in Anderson, 2005)

O'Malley and Chamot proposed an approach which is called 'Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach' (CALLA).   This approach suggests four basic steps in successful language teaching. These include academic content for language learning, learning strategies, standards-based and portfolios assessment, and it assumes that learning can take an advanced rate if there is a focus on strategies. Learning strategies in the O'Malley and Chamot taxonomy are divided into three types: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies.

- **Oxford Taxonomy**(1990)

Oxford (1990) divides learning strategies into two main types: direct and indirect. Direct strategies have direct relation with the language, that is to say they need mental processing, and include memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies, on the other hand, help in developing in the target language, and they are divided into metacognitive, affective and social strategies as figure 1.2 shows.

DIRECT STRATEGIES

INDIRECT STRATEGIES

I. *Memory* strategies
- A. Creating mental linkages
- B. Applying images and sounds
- C. Reviewing well
- D. Employing action

I. *Metacognitive* strategies
- A. Centering your learning
- B. Arranging and planning your learning
- C. Evaluating your learning

II. *Cognitive* strategies
- A. Practicing
- B. Receiving and sending messages
- C. Analyzing and reasoning
- D. Creating structure for input and output

II. *Affective* strategies
- A. Lowering your anxiety
- B. Encouraging yourself
- C. Taking your emotional temperature

III. *Compensation* strategies
- A. Guessing intelligently
- B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

III. *Social* strategies
- A. Asking questions
- B. Cooperating with others
- C. Empathizing with others

Figure 1.2. Direct Strategies and Indirect Strategies by Oxford (1990)

Both taxonomies, O'Malley and Chamot and Oxford, share some of the strategies and differ in some others, but both work for the learner. The two taxonomies are summarized by Ellis (2008).

O'Malley and Chamot (1990)	Oxford (1990)
A. Metacognitive strategies, e.g. 'selective attention' (deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input) B. Cognitive strategies, e.g. 'inferencing' (using available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information) C. Social/affective, e.g. 'question for clarification' (asking a teacher or another native speaker for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation and/or examples)	A. Direct 1. Memory strategies, e.g. 'grouping' (classifying or reclassifying materials into meaningful units) 2. Cognitive strategies, e.g. 'practising' (repeating, formally practising, recognizing and using formulas, recombining, and practising naturalistically) 3. Compensation strategies, e.g. 'switching to mother tongue' B. Indirect 1. Metacognitive strategies; e.g. 'setting goals and objectives' 2. Affective strategies, e.g. (taking risks wisely' 3. Social strategies, e.g. 'asking for clarification or verification'

Table 1.2 Two Taxonomies of Learning Strategies (Ellis, 2008)

From the two previous types of strategies, we can notice that there are some strategies which have relation with vocabulary and others with listening. In terms of vocabulary strategies, Presseley (2006) says that students should be explicitly taught strategies to link between prior knowledge and unfamiliar words. In developing vocabulary, learners use some of the strategies. According to Nattinger (1988; cited in Jordens, 1997), vocabulary comprehension depends on strategies to understand and store in memory and in turn to use them or retrieve them from memory. According to Nation (2005), there are four main vocabulary strategies used by students, but there is a small problem which is that each strategy should be learned and practised alone in a

given period. These strategies include guessing from context, learning from context, using word cards and using dictionaries.

In terms of listening, Field (2008) suggests that teachers have to teach students listening strategies in three ways:

• draw upon knowledge of strategy use to interpret the decisions made by learners about the recorded material they hear;

• raise learner awareness of listening strategies both their potential value and their possible dangers; and

• include specific instruction that aims to increase strategy use and to ensure that learners watch their strategies more effectively to the problems they seek to resolve.

From the strategies to acquire words, Presseley (2006) says that repeating the word orally so that students take its pronunciation, then saying in context to know its meaning. In a research done by Chen (2007) on an advanced 30-year-old Taiwanese woman who had majored in English, shows that the learner used 18 strategies in order to comprehend an audio text. These strategies are prediction, using background knowledge, listening for key words, grammar analysis, note-taking, inferring the context of the text, visualization, reinterpretation, selecting strategies, increasing concentration, predicting confirmation, problem identification, selective attention, evaluation, recalling the main idea and deleting impossible answers. The research reported that the learning strategies were grouped in three (3) groups, which are strategies for monitoring comprehension, strategies for assisting comprehension and strategies for enhancing comprehension.

1.3.2.   Second Language Vocabulary Strategies

Since ESL/EFL (English as a Second Language/ English as a Foreign Language, respectively) students try to acquire new words in their learning process, they look for some ways to do so. Learning strategies are   the possible solutions to do that: word frequency, incidental and intentional vocabulary learning, vocabulary learning and taking notes and vocabulary learning and reading/Writing/Listening comprehension.

1.3.2.1.   Word Frequency

English words as originally derived from the Anglo-Saxon language, Latin and Greek. Commins (2008) argues that high-frequency words are derived from the Anglo-Saxon language, whereas the low-frequency words are derived from the Graeco-Latin language. What is a high-frequency word? And what is a high-frequency word? A high-frequent word is *"a word occurring frequently in a corpus of spoken or written text"* (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). They cite the twenty most frequent words in written English by Kucera and Francis: *the, of, and, to, a, in, that, is, was, he, for, it, with, as, his, on, be, at, by,* and *I*. According to Plag (2002), the two most frequent words in English are the definite article '*the*' and the verb '*to be*' (see table 1.3 page 29-30). According to the British National Corpus (BNC), the former has a frequency of about 6.1 million times, whereas the latter counted 4.2 times considering all its forms: *am, are, be, been, being, is, was, and were*. According to McCarten (2007), the most common word in spoken texts is *I*; besides, the five most common verbs in addition to *be* and *have* are *know, think, get, go and mean*; whereas the most frequent nouns are *people, time and things* ; and the most frequent adjective is *good*. McCarty (ibid.) justifies the use of these lists is that they give insights to teachers of which words to teach first to students, which means that the more frequent words are going to be taught first and then the less common words.

On the other hand, low frequency words, since they are countless, deserve to be taught and learned. Saville-Troike (2005) argues that some vocabularies are domain specific like collocations, idioms and metaphors, and argues that frequency and practice lead to automaticity, which in turn leads to learning vocabulary. Nation (2005) differentiates between the high-frequency and low-frequency words saying:

a.   High-frequency words (1500- 2000 words) are frequently used and consequently they should be learned as quickly as possible, and because of their efficacy, teachers and students should give them more attention; and

b.   Low-frequency words are thousands and they do not need to be taught but learners are advised to use strategies to learn and cope with them.

According to Criado and Sánchez (in press), frequency is important for two reasons; first, most frequent words should be learned first since they are used in communication more often, and frequency gives the opportunity for repetitive practice.

The following table classifies the fifty most-frequent words in written and spoken corpuses.

Rank	Written	Spoken	Rank	Written	Spoken
1	the	The	26	by	we
2	to	I	27	me	he
3	of	You	28	her	do
4	a	And	29	they	got
5	and	To	30	not	that's
6	in	It	31	are	for
7	I	A	32	an	this
8	was	Yeah	33	this	just
9	for	That	34	has	all
10	that	Of	35	been	there
11	it	In	36	up	like
12	on	Was	37	were	one
13	he	Is	38	out	be
14	is	it's	39	when	right
15	with	Know	40	one	not
16	you	No	41	their	don't
17	but	Oh	42	she	she
18	at	So	43	who	think
19	his	But	44	if	if
20	as	On	45	him	with
21	be	They	46	we	then
22	my	Well	47	about	at
23	have	What	48	will	about
24	from	Yes	49	all	are
25	had	Have	50	would	as

Table 1.3. Fifty most frequency words in written and spoken words (written data taken from Cambridge International Corpus (CIC) and spoken data taken from CANCODE (Saville-Troike, 2005).

1.3.2.2. Incidental vs. Intentional Vocabulary Learning

According to the frameworks of Coady (1997), Hulstijn, Hollander, and Greindanus (1996) and Hunt and Beglar (1998) (cited in Yoshii and Flaitz, 2002), there are three approaches to enhance the students' vocabulary learning which are: incidental learning, explicit instruction and independent strategy development. Intentional learning is emphasized among the three approaches and at the same time, it received some critiques like being *"not always effective or efficient"*.

First, implicit learning, as defined by Ellis (1994b: 1; cited in Vienna, 2003), is the *"acquisition of knowledge structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operation"*, and according to Richards and Schmidt (2002; cited in Ahmed, 2011), incidental learning is *"learning one thing while intending to learn something else"* (67). Whereas Hulstijn (2001: 271; cited in Vienna, 2003) defines incidental vocabulary as the *"learning of vocabulary as a by-product of any activity not explicitly geared to vocabulary learning.* O'Harra (2004, cited in Ahmed, 2011: 68) defines implicit vocabulary learning as follows:

> *Incidental vocabulary promotes deeper mental processing and better attention. The learners get themselves fully involved in the process of deciphering the meaning through the clues available in the text.*

Explicit learning, on the other hand, is defined as *"more conscious operation where the individual makes and tests hypotheses in a search for structure"* Ellis (1994). Hulstijn (2001, 271 cited in Vienna, 2003) defines intentional vocabulary learning respectively as the following:, and *"any activity geared at committing lexical*

information to memory". O'Harra (2004, cited in Ahmed, 2011: 68) differentiates intentional vocabulary learning from incidental vocabulary saying:

> *Based on synonyms, antonyms, word substitution, multiple choice, scrambled word and crossword puzzles, regardless of context, is not so effective, because learners are more prone to rote learning. A very few words learned through this method get transformed into active process.*

Schmitt (2000) identifies the following ways to facilitate learners' exposure in English. First, to increase the amount of words in the language classroom; second, to encourage students' group work to help students learn new words from each other (students do not have the same knowledge of words); third, to encourage students to communicate with native speakers or more advanced English users; fourth and finally, if possible to spend time in an English speaking environment.

Some of the research which is done on the importance of incidental learning in favour of explicit learning is as the following. Nation (1999) focuses the importance of "*message-focused activities*" parallel with direct study of language units, but emphasized that learning language should be over than 25 per cent of the total language-learning programme. Another study showed that vocabulary learning increased by the use of glosses in printed materials. The same results, reported by the research done by Jacobs, Dufon and Fong (1994), done on American students studying Spanish. The results showed an advance in vocabulary learning for students who accessed to glosses more than those who did not (Yoshi and Flaitz: 2002).

1.3.2.3. Vocabulary Learning and Taking Notes

Vocabulary learning could have many ways, one of which is through taking notes or using notebooks. According to McCarthy (1990), after students receive new information, they may take notes in vocabulary notebooks, vocabulary cards or they just write it in the margins. According to Yongqi Gu (2003), who states that few research was done on note taking of vocabulary and how it affects vocabulary learning, students could take the new vocabulary down in the margins, between the lines, or on separate notebooks. Hill and Flynn (2006) justify that *"the purpose of taking notes is to help students acquire and integrate knowledge; it is a way to organize and process information"* (69).

In a study done by Ahmed (1989) on a group of Sudanese students who use the taking notes strategy, the findings of this study were that the note-taking strategy as a macro-strategy did not make the distinction between good and poor learners, and on the other side taking notes as a micro-strategy did not show how this strategy affected vocabulary learning. Cohen and Aphek (1979) made a research on Hebrew students in Israel. The researchers distinguished between two types of students: those who left their notes the way they took them, and those who modified their notes after class. Consequently, this study did not show correlation between taking notes and vocabulary acquisition. As a result, a few studies are done on the combination of the three variables: listening comprehension, taking notes and vocabulary acquisition.

1.3.2.4. Vocabulary Acquisition and Reading/ writing/Listening Comprehension

There are four major views that see vocabulary as an aid in language comprehension which are the instrumentalist view, the aptitude view, the knowledge view and the access view. The instrumentalist view views vocabulary knowledge as a main

prerequisite and the reason for comprehension. The aptitude view sees vocabulary knowledge as *"having strong general 'intelligence' or 'feel' for a language"*. The knowledge view considers vocabulary as world knowledge in the sense that it enables listening comprehension. The access view sees vocabulary as having causal relationship with comprehension (Nation; 2001 cited in Rost, 2005).

Lynch (2009) in a comparison between research done on reading and vocabulary acquisition, on one side; and vocabulary acquisition and listening comprehension, on another, says *"compared with the amount of research into the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading ability in a second language, these has been relatively little into the links between vocabulary and listening"* (35). Goh (2005) considers that *"vocabulary knowledge has been shown to be an important variable in successful listening comprehension among listeners of different abilities"* (66). Elley (1989) finds that students acquire vocabulary when they find the story they hear interesting, comprehensible and could be repeated, in the same time if teachers provide small definitions of some unfamiliar words in the story. In addition to knowing words, Goh (ibid.) emphasizes learning words which are specific to culture; this idea is reinforced by Jordens (2006) who ensures the *"importance of tackling cultural issues as aspects that influence listeners' interpretation of what they are hearing"* (39). Hulstijn (2001; cited in Nation, 2005) argues that the more teachers help their students pay attention to some particular words, the more students learn those words. In a study done by Mecartty on 154 English -speaking second year non-major students of Spanish at the University of Denver, investigating the relationship between the lexical and grammatical proficiency and listening performance, the results showed that the grammatical knowledge of students had no significance on students listening performance, whereas vocabulary knowledge scored 15 per cent of the listening success. Mecartty concluded that *"lexical knowledge appears to be more crucial to*

reading than it is to listening", this means that lexical knowledge is more interpreted in reading because it is visual than that in listening where students have to depend on themselves in interpreting the meaning (Lynch, 2000: 37). Whereas some corpus studies report that, the understanding of a conversation lies on being able to identify and to be familiar with from 90 to 95   of content words (Rost, 2005: 508).

The relation between vocabulary and writing is of great importance since any piece of writing cannot be successful if there is no good choice of words. According to Taylor (2009), vocabulary should be chosen according to the other words in the text, and adds that the act of choosing the words carefully makes the piece of writing satisfied to be read and not confusing. The piece of writing can be confusing if the words used have another meaning whereas the writer means something else. Another problematic issue which may encounter students is the informal use of words; this problem may be due to the media influence.   Students may use a word which in fact is informal even if they know that there are some words which they could not use in academic writing like the words "dad" and "guy" instead of "father" and "man". The good piece of writing does not necessarily contain sophisticated vocabulary since the sophisticated vocabulary may lead to negative interest by readers. The same idea which is argued by Clarke and Fox (2007, 168) saying, *"[u]nfortunately, the more sophisticated or cerebral your vocabulary, the less it may say about what you really do. In fact, sometimes these big words are really just a front for fuzzy thinking."*

1.3.3.   Language Awareness

In language classrooms, both teachers and students should develop awareness since it is an important element especially in case of differentiating or acquiring some language skills.

1.3.3.1. Definition of Language Awareness

According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), language awareness is *"a movement"* which appeared firstly in Britain in the 1980s to raise children's curiosity and to *"provide links among the different kinds of language experiences children typically encountered in school ..."* Hufeisen (2009: 118) defines language awareness as *"conscious knowledge about the foreign language process and the ability to apply this knowledge to the current foreign language learning process"*, whereas Van Lier (1996) defines language awareness as *"a person's ability to and consciousness of the nature of language and its role in human life"* (Donmall, 1985: 7)

Language awareness is defined, according to Cenoz and Hornburger (2008), as *"the explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use"* (xiv). According to Ichihara and Cohen (2010), there are two types of awareness: noticing and understanding. The former is *"registering the simple occurrence of some event"*, or in other words it is identifying surface forms. The latter is *"recognition of a general principle, rule, or pattern"* (102), whereas Schmidt (1994, 2000) divides awareness into noticing and metalinguistic awareness. Noticing is to have *"conscious attention to surface elements"*, whereas metalinguistic awareness *"involves incorporating intake into long-term memory"* (449).

Researchers use the terms "language awareness" and "knowledge about language" interchangeably, whereas the term *"metalinguistic awareness"* refers to the formal aspects of language (Cenoz, 2008). In defining metalinguistic awareness, Gass and Selinker (2008: 359) say: *"[it] is one's ability to consider language not just as a means of expressing ideas or communicating with others, but also as an object of inquiry"*.

In the first language, native speakers develop awareness only after they develop knowledge about language (Yule, 2005). In the same vein, bilinguals can develop more awareness and eventually become more fluent, flexible and elaborative in thinking than monolinguals. In the same vein, Gass and Selinker (2008) argue that what makes NNSs aware of incongruities between the forms they are using and the forms used by NSs.

In vocabulary awareness raising, O'keeffe, McCarthy and Carter (2007) argue that:

… Encouraging students to record whole chunks in their vocabulary notebooks may raise awareness of their usefulness as frames that can be used with a potentially large number of utterances. (74)

Moreover, they add:

Listening activities are the best way of awareness raising, especially since in naturalistic listening passages, common chunks will be spoken rapidly and will punctuate content.

According to O'keeffe, McCarthy and Carter (2007), knowledge about language is active and productive, whereas language awareness is passive and receptive.

According to Stanovich (2000), phonological awareness is necessary in learners' ability to learning, in the sense that it *"seems to provide a strong foundation for the development of decoding skills"* and *"there appears to be a link between the development of phonemic awareness and control over the alphabetical system, which in turn provides the basis for fluent word recognition."*(98)

 Moreover, good experience of listening and speaking can develop phonological awareness; that is to say, *"It is in sufficient to train phonological awareness in*

isolation, it is important to establish the relationship between sounds and written forms of words" (119).

Jordens (2006) says that listeners' awareness of the body language is a key element in helping them to improve their communicative ability when listening. The following is an example of awareness' raising in case of teaching a new vocabulary.

Student: What's the difference between 'collaborate' and 'cooperate'?

Trainee: Well 'collaborate' is generally used for something which is negative and 'cooperate' is more positive.

Student: So can I say 'I am cooperating with Maria on this project'? Collaborate would be wrong here?

Trainee: Well yes, no, mm I'm not too sure. What does the dictionary say? Let's check.

Table 1.4. Sample Material for Awareness-Raising in Relation to Teaching New Vocabulary (O'Keeffe and Farr, 2003: 401 cited in O'Keeffe, McCarthy and Carter, 2007).

1.3.3.2. Teacher's Awareness

Tsui (2011) argues that before 1970s and 1980s, orientation in classroom discourse analysis was prescriptive, and after that period, it shifted to descriptive orientation. Since then, more attention was given *"to raising teachers' awareness of their own language use and how it affects learning opportunities"* (276). Andrews (2007) argues that any teacher should possess an *"adequate"* level in language awareness (TLA).

Crawford, Saul, Mathew and Makinster (2005), to raise students' awareness, suggest some activities. The first activity is called 'directed listening-thinking' which teaches students to listen or read actively, developing skill in comprehension of narratives, and

use then awareness of genre and their understanding of plot structures to guide prediction. The second activity is 'predicting from terms'. This activity is used in the anticipation phase of a lesson to encourage the students to think along the lines of a text they are about to hear or read. Predicting from terms activities teach students to listen or read actively, consider important vocabulary, use then awareness of the genre of a text to know what to expect from it and to collaborate with others to solve problem. Explicit awareness could be beneficial if teachers show their knowledge, beliefs and practice make teachers during their instruction to send messages to students of how they could learn the language effectively. Walter (1997), on the other hand, justifies the role of explanations during the instruction of semantic rules which helps in awareness-raising, in addition to more exposure and use in different contexts that give more fruitful results. Field (1999) confirms that the content of the material used have to be interesting for students, the teachers should not guarantee that students share the same interests. According to Field (ibid: 43), *"interest in the content by learners who are maturing (also who are not yet matured) can only derive existing knowledge and cultural awareness"*, Field (ibid) adds in order to the content to be interesting, it should be recognizable by the students.

1.3.3.3. Students' Awareness

Students' awareness helps them in differentiating between written and spoken English; it helps them to shift from knowing how to knowing what (Edwards, 2005). An activity to raise students' awareness is make students role play some dialogues or conversations and provide them with the same ones practised by native speakers, then students make differences between what they performed and what native speakers did (Edwards, ibid).

Hewitt (2008) says that learning a language is both reflexive and reflective, in the sense that learning strategies are developed through learning and awareness, which is

met cognition, and learner through learning, s/he adds that learners should develop an awareness which is suitable for the different approaches of language. There are different designed activities to raise students' awareness like the Keyword Method where the teacher gives to students' new vocabulary to practise, they start with concrete words then abstract words. Other related activities or techniques like keeping learning journals raised learners' awareness because students reflect and critically evaluate their learning process, this activity is seen by many researchers like Matsumoto (1996) who sees having a diary as a metacognitive activity which help learners in raising their awareness and gives their teachers information concerning their students' learning (Takač, 2002). The idea of keeping a diary also is supported by Jerram (2006) who says, *"teaching journals were designed to develop reflective learning and help students develop an awareness of, and control over, their own learning"* (110). A third activity, which could be as an aid to students to developing awareness is the gender-dictionary. Teachers ask their students to add new words to their dictionary after weekly activities.

Conclusion

Vocabulary in any language skill is a basic element in comprehension either in reading, listening or in writing. For that, in learning any foreign language, students tend to learn vocabulary in favour of any other element. To do so, students try to rely on themselves or on others by checking their dictionaries or asking teachers or peers. Even if they are unaware of learning strategies in some cases, students use them all the time.

CHAPTER TWO

The Listening Skill and Language Proficiency

Buber (1947) says:

"We do not find meaning lying in things nor do we put it into things, but between us and things it can happen"

(cited in Cook:2008)

Introduction

   The listening skill is one of the major language skills without which learning a language would be difficult, especially when the target language is not spoken among the people in the community. It is important to identify the place of the listening skill in the different approaches and methods as well as the different characteristics of teacher talk and how they affect students' listening comprehension and success in language learning generally and in vocabulary specifically.

2.1.   Definition of the Listening Skill

   Rost (2005) links listening to cognition in the sense that *"listening encompasses receptive, constructive, and interpretive aspects of cognition, which are utilized in both first language (L1) and second language (L2) listening."* (503). According to Oxford Students' Dictionary (2007), the verb to listen means: *"to pay attention to [somebody/something] in order to hear them or it."*, so according to this definition, there is a major component in listening effectively, which is attention - this latter is going to be discussed in the active chapter below.

The listening skill did not gain its place until the second half of the twentieth century where some researchers highlighted the importance of oral language like Krashen (1982) when he introduced the concept of comprehensible input and later on James Asher (1988) and his Total Physical Response which is based on Krashen's theory (Nunan, 2002). This idea is reinforced by Rivers who argues that a foreigner, when visiting a foreign country, needs to understand what others say and not make himself understood by others (Brown, 2006). According to Oxford (1993) and Rubin (1994), *"although it is generally recognized that listening plays a significant role in language*

learning, listening comprehension remains 'a young field' that merits greater research attention" Vandergrift (2003).

For Brownell (1986) the listening skill is the collaboration of hearing, understanding, remembering, interpreting, evaluating and responding to messages. Rost (1994) distinguishes between hearing and listening saying: *"hearing is the basis of perception and perception is the basis of listening."*(9), and adds that listening is less noticeable in both use and improvement.

The listening skill is one of the major four language skills - in addition to speaking, reading and writing. Morley (2001) and Rost (2001) argue about the importance of the listening skill in parallel to the other skills saying: *"listening to a second language (L2) has been regarded as the most widely used language skill in normal daily life"* (Jordens, 2006: 29).

Listening can take many ways; one can listen to someone else in a telephone call, announcement, radio, music or lecture, and we are either participants like in a conversation or just listeners like in the case of music. We can even be over hearers in the case of in the bus or the train (Lindsay and Knight, 2006). Lindsay and knight (ibid) make the difference between active and passive listening; in the language classroom, students may ask questions, give clarifications or add a relating idea, this is active listening, whereas passive listening is that the listener cannot interact.

Anderson and Lynch (1989) make the difference between reciprocal and non-reciprocal listening; while the former *"refers to those listening tasks where there is opportunity for the listener to interact with the speaker, and to negotiate the content of the interaction"*, whereas the latter is *"tasks such as listening to the radio or formal lecture where the transfer of information is in one direction only –from the speaker to*

the listener" (23). Lynch and Mendelssohn (2002: 194) say that the only point that is present in listening and not the written language is *"the presence of a rich prosody (stress, intonation, rhythm, loudness and more)"*. L2 listening comprehension requires from the listener to use prior knowledge, linguistic knowledge and cognitive processes to the listening task and the aural text (Jones and Plass, 2002).

2.2.   Approaches to Listening

During language teaching and learning, many approaches and methods have been used and are still being used: the Grammar Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method, the Discrete-Item Approach, the Communicative Language Teaching and the Task-Based Approach.   Before we discuss the listening skill approaches and methods that have been used, it is worthy to define the terms approach, method and technique.

Anthony (1963: 36-7) defines approach, method and technique as:

> *An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of subject matter to be taught…*
> *method is an overall plan for orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural within an approach there can be many methods.*
> Whereas a technique is

> *Implementational that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be*

consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well.

In the Grammar Translation Method, less importance was given to the language skills and especially listening. The language used in instruction was the first language (L1) and no target language (TL) was used (Flowerdew and Miller, 2005).

In the Direct Method, the target language was used as a means for instruction and no use of the L1claiming that students understand all what is natural (Flowerdew and Miller, ibid). Others, like Richards and Rodgers (1986), argue that there is no need to use the mother tongue if there is demonstration and action with the use of the target language which helps really in language development. One of the main characteristics of this method is teaching both listening comprehension and speech, and the focus was on the listening skill first and then the other skills. Even if the method aims at teaching the target language but there was no attempt to teach how to develop the listening strategies or skills (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

In Grammar Approach, usually students listen to a recording while they have the same version written, and as a technique to this approach, this activity is like a test but not a way to develop the listening skills. The purpose of the grammar approach is to define the sounds of words and not understanding words (Richards and Rodgers, ibid).

The focus in the Audio-Lingual method is to manipulate the structure and not to develop the listening skills. Dialogues and drills are the activities practised in classroom. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), in the audio-lingual method, the shift was moved from the written language towards the spoken language. Brooks (1964; cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 49) agrees with this idea saying that language *"is primarily what is spoken and on secondarily what is written"*.

The Discrete-Item Approach deals with the segmental and suprasegmental aspects of spoken texts and their contextualization. Segmental deals with vowel and consonants sounds whereas suprasegmental deals with tone and stress. The very used sounds and features are presented in spoken texts and drilled (Richards and Rodgers, ibid).

The aim of the Communicative Approach is that what is done in classrooms should have relation with real life communication. The value of communication is not new in this approach because it has its place in other approaches like situational and audio-lingual approaches. Listening, interacting with others and/ or completing a task are the main goals concerning the listening skill (Flowerdew and Miller, ibid). According to Patel and Jain (2008), accuracy and fluency are important in this approach which tries to develop them from the beginning of language learning. Canal (1983) proposed a model which consists of four basic competencies which are: grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic and discourse competence. Canal who was the first or the last who proposed such model, Canal and swain (1980) proposed another model which was modified later by Canal. According to Usó-Juan and Martinez-Flor (2006) justify that even those models and other gained their place and role in the time they appeared but still they received some criticisms like the absence of pragmatic competence. Those models argue that the pragmatic competence is related to the sociolinguistic competence, but later on, pragmatic competence gained its place as a separate competence in the late 1980s.

The Task-Based Language Teaching is a kind of development for the communicative language teaching approach in the sense that both focus on communication (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). The task is the main element in the current approach. According to Skehan (1996: 20), tasks are

Activities which have meaning as their primary focus. Success in

tasks is evaluated in terms of achievement of an outcome, and

tasks generally bear some resemblance to real life use. So task –

based instruction takes a fairly strong view of communication

language teaching.

 Nunan (1989) in giving his definition emphasizes that learners when doing the task, they should focus on the meaning rather than the form; in addition to that, the task must stand alone as a communication act in real life. Therefore, this approach aims at developing the students to be active listeners (Brown, 1987, cited in Flowerdew and Miller, 2005), and from the results of this approach is while students listen to lectures, they may take notes and draw simple diagrams (ibid).

According to the Learner-Strategy Approach, students should respond like in real life and they should interact with the task not just to listen and respond. From the listening goals in this approach, developing awareness of skills related to listening (Flowerdew and Miller, ibid).

The main purpose of the Integrated Approach is to develop critical thinking. According to Slavin (2006), critical thinking is *"the evaluation of conclusions through logical and systematic examination of the problem, the evidence, and the solution"* (8) and exceeds saying that critical thinking is *"the ability to make rational decisions about what to do and what to believe"* (269). Beyer (1988) identifies ten critical thinking skills that help students to judge the validity of the arguments. These skills are distinguishing between verifiable facts and value claims; distinguishing between relevant information, claims and reasons; determining the factual accuracy of a statement; determining the credibility of a source; identifying ambiguous claims or arguments; identifying unsteady assumptions; detecting bias; identifying logical fallacies; recognizing logical inconsistencies in a line of reasoning; and determining the strength of an argument or claim. (269).The idea of critical thinking is of major

importance in the interactive approach where listeners have to follow three steps in order to interpret the message. Learners have to decode the message they hear, then, they use their prior knowledge or *"process [the message] critically"*, and third, learners respond appropriately to the information heard (Martinez-Flor and Usé-Juan, 2006).

2.3. Models of the Listening Process

In communication, there are two main models which interact with each other to provide an ideal communication: the Bottom-up process and the Top-Down process. The two models when interacting create the interactive model which in turn plays role while listening and speaking.

2.3.1. The Bottom-Up Processes

It was developed in 1940s and 1950s. Listeners build understanding by standing with the smallest units of acoustic message: individual sounds or phonemes, from these phrases, sentences and in turn from sentences into ideas related to each other, which is referred to Nunan (2002) as a linear process. According to Field (2008, 132), bottom-up model *"refers to building small units into larger..."*, whereas Anderson and Lynch (1988) define and compare the bottom-up model as the *"listener as tape recorder view"* of listening, in the sense that the hearer stores from the smallest sound to the whole utterance.

There is a successful communication if there is no deficiency in the channel and that both the receiver and the sender are using the same code as mentioned in the figure below.

```
           Signal                    Signal

         Transmitted               received
                    \                     \
                     \                     \
                      \                     \
Source ⇒ encoder ═══⇒ Channel ⇒ decoder ═══⇒ destination
```
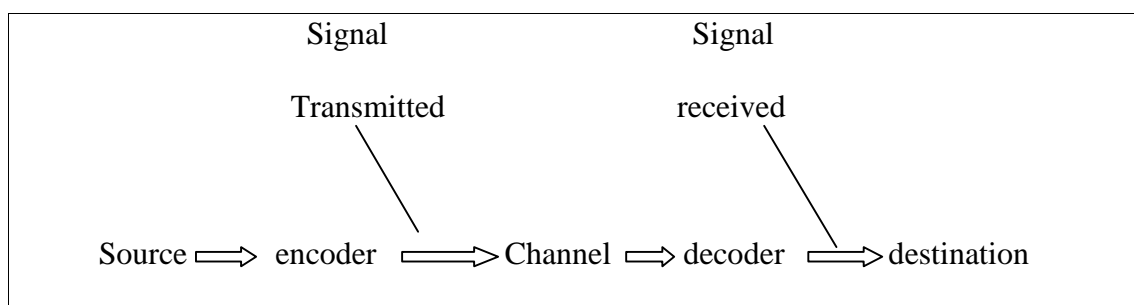
Figure2.1. A Transmission View of Communication.

Gary (2001: 3) argues that listening comprehension is a top-down process in the sense that:

> *The various types of knowledge involved in understanding language are not applied in any order –they can be used in any order, or even simultaneously, and they are all capable of interacting and influencing each other, which is called interactive processing by reading theorists.*

In the classroom, students may use their prior knowledge as the knowledge provided by the teacher to build up new structures or contributions.

2.3.2.   The Top- Down Model

The top-down model relies on using previous knowledge and not text units. For example in the case of missing words, the listener can predict a sound and not rely on the acoustic signal (Gary, ibid). According to Chaudron and Richards (1986; cited in Celce-Murcia, 2001) top-down processing:

> *Involves prediction and inferencing on the basis of hierarchies of facts, propositions, and expectations, and it enables the listener or the reader to hypass some aspects of bottom-up processing (114-5).*

Rost (2006: 53) defines top-down processing in listening as *"the use of expectations in order to infer what the speaker may have said or intended to say"*. In other words, in the top-down process, the listener lies to a great extent on the non verbal language and the background knowledge where s/he compensates for the missing language.

2.3.3. The Interactive Model

The interactive model means the contribution of both bottom-up and top-down processes. According to Flowerdew and Miller (2005: 27), the interactive model for learners is not the same, that is to say *"for advanced learners, however, who have mastered basic phonology and syntax, emphasize on the development of top-down skills for applying schematic knowledge may be more appropriate"*. In listening, the process is not as easy as it seems from bottom-up progression that is from sounds to syllables – to phrases; the same thing for top-down uses contexts, it can serve two different purposes: to compensate for gaps in understanding or to enrich a fully decoded message (Field, 2008). According to Dirven and Tayler (1986: 328), *"[b]ottom-up and top-down are not consecutive, but rather operate simultaneously."* In classroom settings, teachers should link between the two processes in the sense that teachers make the students understand what they hear based on what they hear; but if teachers see that there is a problem of understanding the new material, they use schema-building activities to call up students' prior knowledge (Nunan, 2002). Cook (2008) identifies another term or concept which has relation with the two processes which is *"parsing"*. According to Cook (ibid.), parsing is the way the mind works when it hears a sentence. In addition, in principle, the mind functions in both processes, and listeners use both top-down and bottom-up parsing models. O'Malley and his colleagues (1985) find that:

> *Effective L2 learners used both top-down strategies listening for*
>
> *intonation or phrases and bottom-up strategies listening for*

words, while ineffective listeners concentrated on the bottom-up

process. When parsing failed, they fell back on a range of other

strategies, the least effective being translation. (Cook, 2008:

128).

For advanced learners, the top-down process is used to infer both intonation and phrases, whereas the bottom-up process is used in case of words. On the contrary, ineffective learners do not use the two processes like effective learners do, that is to say, they fail in interpreting the language and as a substitution strategy, learners may translate.

2.4. Characteristic Variables in Listening Comprehension

In a classroom setting, there is a list of characteristics which may interfere in the listening comprehension, which is the case of memory, concentration, motivation and vocabulary, respectively.

2.4.1. Memory

Memory is defined as *"a dynamic process, it is a receptacle of stimuli that we simply store and retrieve; it is rather an active consecutive process."* (Hedge, 2000). According to Foer (2007), memory is *"an individual's ability to store, retain, and subsequently retrieve knowledge and information"* (175).

Tulving (1985; cited in Biggs and Tang, 2007) differentiates between three types of memory:

- *Procedural memory*: how to do things like actions;

- *Episodic memory*: where you learned things; and

- *Semantic memory*: remembering meaning is supposed to be the hardest system.

Memory is of three types: short-term, long-term and working memory. Short-term memory refers to *"that part of the memory where information which is received is stored for short periods of time while it is being analyzed and interpreted."*(Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 325). Long-term memory is *"a part of memory where information is stored more permanently."* Information here is not stored the way it is received (ibid). Criado (2009) says that:

> *Long-term memory is activated and strengthened mainly (i) through rehearsal or repetitive practice and activation, (ii) when attention is drawn to specific data, and (iii) when new data are associated in some way to already consolidated information.* (46)

Whereas Salkind (2008, 620) defined long-term memory as *"people's storehouse of retrievable information other than perceptual and short-term memory",* Salkind divides long-term memory into two types: *episodic* and *semantic*. The former contains the what, when and where events happened in the past, whereas the latter is the knowledge that is time dependent. Neurologists and psychologists say that long-term memory is activated and strengthened mainly through rehearsal or repeating, when there is attention towards specific data, and when linking the new data to already existing data (Criado, 2009).

The working memory is more than a term that is contemporary for short-term memory, which conceptualizes memory not as a passive system for temporary storage but manipulating information needed in the execution of complex cognitive tasks (ibid).

Short-term memory and long-term memory are different not just because of time, but because of the quality of storage of information; short-term memory has limited amount of information whereas long-term memory is a very huge one (Gairns and Redman, 1986).

2.4.2. Concentration

We discussed in 2.3 (models of the listening process) that there is a successful communication if there is no deficiency in the channel. According to Miller (1968), the attention span is estimated at seven items (+or − two). Many conditions may make the students lose attention in classrooms like pain, family problems, time constraints and lack of drive. According to Underwood (1984, 19), *"if students find the topic interesting they will find concentration easier."*

Attention, on the other hand, is the ability a person has to concentrate on some things while ignoring others (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). The figure below shows how students lose attention during a lecture.
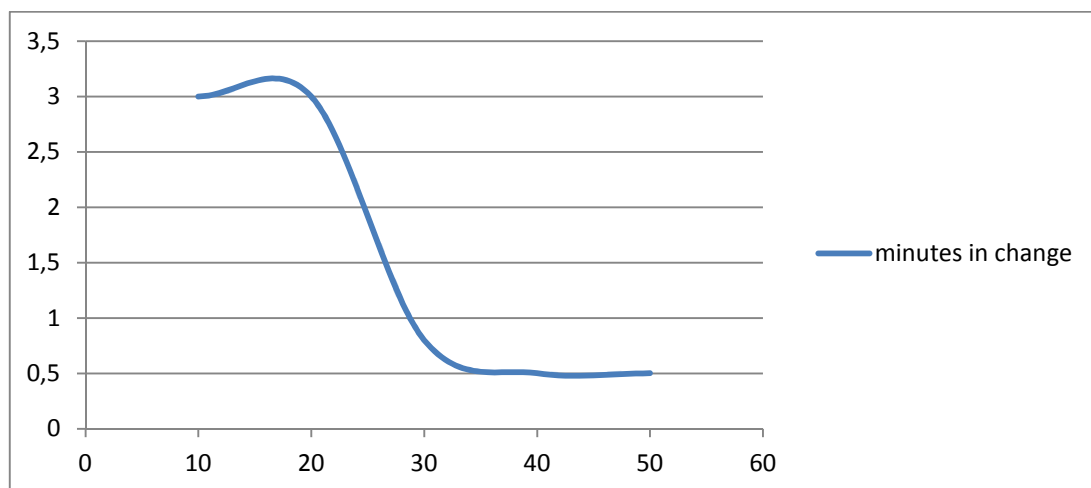
Figure 2.2. Effect of Rest or Change of Activity on Learning (Bigh, 1972; cited in Biggs and Tang, 2002)

According to Grauberg (1997: 182),

> *One reason why listeners are selective in their attention is that*
>
> *they have only a limited capacity to absorb and process what*
>
> *they hear in the time available. If the speech is too fast, or*
>
> *unclear, or contains too much unknown material, they will try*

to process what has just gone, and fail to keep up and

anticipate what comes next.

In lectures, for instance, students are selective in what they listen to because first, they cannot memorize every idea said by the teacher, and second, they may stop at some words or information which are not understood. In some cases where the unknown material is dominating the information, students may fail in both memorizing and anticipating what is coming.

2.4.3.   Motivation

The term motivation has largely been discussed in language learning since there are no real successful results in language learning if there is no motivation. Motivation views are summarized in the following table from Brown (2007, 170).

Behaviouristic	Cognitive	Constructivist
- Anticipation of reward - Desire to receive positive reinforcement - External, individual forces in control	- Driven by basic human needs (exploration, manipulation) - Degree of effort expended - Internal, individual forces in control	- Social context - Community - Social status - Security of group - Internal, interactive forces in control

Table 2.1. Three Views of Motivation

Motivation can be of two types: intrinsic or extrinsic. Deci (1975, cited in Brown, ibid) defines the former as:

Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no

apparent reward except the activity itself. People seem to

engage in the activities for their own sake and not because

they lead to extrinsic reward.... Intrinsically motivated

behaviours are aimed at bringing about certain internally

rewarding consequences, namely feelings of competence and

self-determination.

Extrinsic motivation is the one that is *"fueled"* by external factors like money and prizes (Brown, ibid).

Yule (2005) makes the distinction between instrumental and integrative motivation. Instrumental motivation means that the student has future goals as being able to read the target language but not any social purposes, whereas integrative motivation, in contrast, is having social purposes i.e. to be acceptable by society.

In language learning, much research is done on the effectiveness of motivation on language proficiency. One of these researches is the one done by Gardner and Lambert (1972) who concluded with *"individuals with an integrative orientation would demonstrate greater motivational effort in learning L2, and, thus, achieve greater L2 competence"* (36).

2.4.4. Vocabulary

Vocabulary knowledge plays an important role in listening comprehension. According to Meccarty (2000), L2 listeners show ineffective listening comprehension abilities because of the lack of grammatical and vocabulary knowledge, in addition to word recognition skills. Goh (2005) reinforces that, L2 learners show less ability in recognizing words while listening (Segalowitz and Segalowitz, 1993; Goh, 2000). Moreover, some students show weaknesses in recognizing words even if they know their written forms (ibid). For that, the unfamiliar words could be introduced to students

as worm-up before listening take place. Jordens (2006: 38) emphasizes the role of vocabulary in any listening situation saying,

> *[K]nowledge of the lexicon or vocabulary is an essential part of listeners' linguistic competence, since it is the means to recognize the words that are heard within a whole piece of spoken discourse.*

In the same idea, Grauberg (1997) argues that the ignorance of one word makes even small and easy texts difficult. Jordens (ibid) emphasizes the importance of imposing culture in any learning, that is to say discourse. Brown (2006) justifies that one element that makes learners find difficulties in listening comprehension is word boundaries, that is to say, some L2 learners in fail in knowing where the word starts and where it ends.

Zeeland and Schmitt (2013) conclude, in a study done on the relation between incidental learning of vocabulary and listening comprehension, that the study has shown that L2 listening is a source to incidental vocabulary learning.

2.5. Teacher's Talk and Listening Comprehension

Listening comprehension is a major element in the language learning classroom. For students, the classroom is the only place where they may interact with their teachers, for that, teachers may adapt their rate of talk according to students' level. Students, too, may use their language knowledge like body language to interpret what teachers want to say.

2.5.1. Definition of Teacher's Talk

Lynch (1996) defines teacher's talk as *"the language typically used by teachers in the foreign language classroom"* (8), whereas teacher talk is *"that variety if language sometimes used by teachers when they are in the process of teaching"* (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). A native speaker teacher is different from a non-native speaker teacher in many areas; the latter is defined as a teacher:

- whom English is a second or foreign language,

- The place of work is a foreign language speaking,

- The students he/she teaches speak other language, and

- Speaks the same language as his/her students (Medgyes, 2001)

Teacher talk all the time is a debatable subject. Maxom (2009) argues that students get bored when they just keep listening, which leads them to write and speak while they interact; that is why it is better that teachers' talk is minimized in EFL/ESL settings. One reason is that the classroom is the only place where students can practise the language.

Watson (1995) suggests six categories of teacher talk in a language classroom with percentages:

• Finding out about students' understanding and knowledge (45 per cent of all teacher talk)

• Extending students' thinking (25 per cent of all teacher talk)

• Providing general feedback; e.g. on effort, task difficulty, the need to listen and pay attention giving rewards (16 per cent of all teacher talk)

He argues that just three categories out of six dominate the other categories and in turn, the teacher dominates talk in the lesson.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2004) give three types of talk in the classroom: instructional talk, procedural talk and managerial talk. Instructional talk is the cognitive curricular content; procedural talk is the pedagogical talk on how students work on the content; and managerial talk is related to the order and behaviours in the lesson.

According to Perott (1982: 24), the use of examples in language classrooms may aid *"exposition, explanation, questioning, discussing, responding, and summarizing"*, and adds that examples should move from simple and known examples to more complex ones.

Since in almost all stages, students receive their lectures from their teachers and at some levels, too, are required to be part of lectures. In almost all cases, teachers are the dominant of the speech, the same idea which is justified by Gass and Selinker (2001) saying that there are three sources of students' input: teachers, materials and other students. Many researches are done to investigate how teachers' talk effects language comprehension, on the one hand and success on the other. According to Health (2008), research that was directed to discuss the oral language of both teachers and students is concluded with teachers' dominance of talk in classrooms. In other studies like Nunan's research (2005) which revealed that teachers talk is in average twice the one of students. Moreover, some studies reported that teachers talk could reach 80 per cent of classroom talk. Nunan (ibid) distinguishes between teacher talk types and students talk types. The former can be to assess, compare, describe, and explain, whereas the latter can be to comment, compare, describe, explain and question. Barmes (1969; cited in Tsui, 2008), on the other hand, argues that, there are two types of student talk which are exploratory or final draft.

2.5.2.   Characteristics of Teacher Talk

Teachers in classes tend to use a variety of language so that it fits students' level and context. Teachers' talk includes a list of characteristics which are rate of talk, articulation, stress and intonation, hesitations and structure.

2.5.2.1.   Rate of Talk

Rate of talk or speech rate is one of the elements that interferes with comprehension. Generally, when students are not very intimate with the foreign language, speech seems to them as very fast, in reality it is not; but when they become familiar with the language, it seems to them slower (Gary, 2001). Following the same idea, Lynch (2009) argues that everyone must take into consideration that when speech rate increases, the level of understanding decreases.

The following table summarizes the average speech rates for British English.

Text type	Words/ minute	Syllables/ minute	Syllables/ second	Syllables/ word
Radio monologues	160	250	4,17	1,6
Conversations	210	260	4,33	1,3
Interviews	190	250	4,17	1,3
Lectures to NNS	140	190	3,17	1,4

Table 2.2. Average Speech Rates for British English (Tauroza and Allison, 1990, cited in Gary, 2001).

Speech rate has effects on language comprehension as Foulke (1968; cited in Lynch, 2009) argues in a research with NS and found that comprehension starts to become difficult above 250 words per minute (wpm). In the same vein, Keskes (2005) justifies that speech rate could be an obstacle for non native speakers (NNS) and not for native speakers (NS) even if the speech is very fast and adds that the rate of talk starts to fall down from advanced to beginners levels.

2.5.2.2. Articulation, Stress and Intonation

Crystal (1995) identifies six functions of intonation which are: **emotional** (enthusiasm, doubt and distaste), **grammatical** (punctuation in writing), **informational** (higher stress is given to important information), **textual** (make the stress to contrast or cohere like paragraphs in writing), **psychological** (link information in chunks like lists to make them easier to memorize) and **indexical** (in case of newscasters). What the former means is the emphasis given to particular syllables within words than others, and the latter is the emphasis given to particular words than others (Gary, 2001). Whereas intonation is the tone given to the endings of words; for instance, statements and

questions take falling and rising intonations respectively (Gary, 2001). Keskes (2005, 65) asks the question: *"do Algerian teachers of English master large repertoires of phonological features to afford 'modifications' when circumstances oblige?"* The answer, he gave, is that stress, articulation and pitch are all native speakers' affairs arguing that many elements interfere Algerian teachers being native-like speakers like period of training. Stress and intonation are specific to each language; in English, for example, there are two types of stress which are word stress and sentence stress.

Articulation, stress and intonation are all important in comprehension. Lynch (1998) argues that prosodic features are all important in how listeners interpret different chunks.

2.5.2.3. Hesitations

Hesitations are of four types: *unfilled pauses*: there are periods of silence; *filled pauses*: the use of words like "uh, ah, mm"; *repetitions*: the speaker uses the same words; and *false starts* where the speaker uses other words to replace the previous starts (Gary, 2001). There are some claims that hesitations provide misunderstanding for NNS whereas others say that hesitations may lead to understanding (ibid). Dewey (1933, cited in Dillon and Maguire, 2007) argues that hesitation may be useful to self-improvement, more than a sign of difficulty.

Pauses can be parts of hesitations. There are two types of pauses, according to Richards and Schmidt (2002): silent pauses which means there is a break without speech and filled pauses which mean the use of some words like "mm" and "er". It is easy for a reader to identify where a word starts and where it finishes, which is not the case in continuous speech. Rost (2005) argues the same idea saying, *"In continuous*

speech, there is no auditory equivalence to the white spaces in reading continuous text,

so the listener does not have reliable cues for marking word boundaries." (507).

2.5.2.4. Structure

For many students, teacher talk is a difficult matter because of the use of a difficult or complicated language structure. According to Hirai, Borrego, Garza and kloock (2010:80) *"text structure is the pattern the author uses to arrange in a logical and coherent form"*; similarly, they add that students generally find difficulties in the language structure of textbooks and academic texts. Davies and Elder (2004) say that rather than the other languages, the definite and indefinite articles are of major importance in the given and new information.

To conclude, Lyster (2007) argues that teachers in content-based programs are known to use slow talk, emphasis on key words and phrases and the use of cognates, restricted vocabulary and short sentences; as well as the use of self-repetition, modeling and paraphrasing (Tadif, 1994). Cloud (2000 et al.) says that teachers use pauses to give the students some time to interpret the questions and in the same time to give appropriate responses (Lyster, 2007). The following table summarizes some of the studies done on teacher talk and its effects on language proficiency.

Feature	Main conclusions	Main studies
Amount of talk	In general, the research confirms the finding for L1 classrooms –namely, that the teacher takes up about two-thirds of the total talking time.	Lagaretta 1977 ; Bialystok et al. 1978; Ramirez et al. 1986
Functional distribution	There is considerable evidence of variability among teachers and programs, but the general picture is again one of the teacher dominance in that teachers are likely to explain, question, and command and learners to respond.	Shapiro 1979; Bialystok et al. 1978; Ramirez et al. 1986
Rate of speech	Teachers, like native speakers in general, slow down their rate of speech when talking to learners as opposed to other native speakers and also do so to a greater extent with less proficient learners. However, there is considerable variability among teachers.	Hanzl 1979;Dahl 1981 ; Wesche and Ready 1985 ; Griffiths 1990
Pauses	Teachers are likely to make use of longer pauses when talking to learners than to other native speakers.	Downes 1981; Hakansson 1986; Wesche and Ready 1985
Phonology, intonation, articulation, stress	There have been few studies which have attempted to qualify these aspects of teacher talk, but teachers appear to speak more loudly and to make their speech more distinct when addressing L2 learners.	Henzl 1973, 1979; Downes 1981, Mannon 1986
Modifications in vocabulary	Several studies provide evidence of a lower type –token ratio and teachers also vary in accordance with the learners' proficiency level, but Wesche and Ready (1985) found no significant vocabulary modifications in university lectures to L2 learners.	Henzl 1979; Mizon 1981
Modification in syntax	There is a trend towards shorter utterances with less proficient learners, but some studies which use words per utterance as a measure	Pica and Long 1986; Gales 1977; Kleifgen 1985; Early 1985;

	report no modifications. The degree subordination tends to be lower, but again results have been mixed. Teachers use fewer marked structures such as past tense. More declaratives and statements than questions are used in comparison to natural discourse. Ungrammatical teacher talk is rare.	Wesche and Ready
Modifications in discourse	There is some evidence that teachers use more self-repetitions with L2 learners, in particular when they are of low-level proficiency.	Hamayan and Tucker 1980; Ellis 1985d

Table 2.3. Main Features of Teacher Talk (Chaudron, 1988 cited in Ellis, 2008: 795-6)

2.5.3.   Language Knowledge

In communication or in language classrooms, students need background knowledge to manipulate the information or the ideas delivered. Language knowledge is divided into body language, teacher-students' interaction and schemata which are defined below.

2.5.3.1. Definition of Language Knowledge

Knowledge of language or language knowledge is *"the ability of a person to actively produce their own speech and writing"*; this is called active knowledge language, and opposed to it is passive knowledge of language (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). Cultural knowledge, on the one side, *"subsumes content and context in many ways but also includes an understanding of the wider social setting within which acts of reading and listening take place"* (Saville-Troike, 2005: 154). Content knowledge, on the other side, for teachers, is their knowledge about the subject matter including grammar, phonetics and theories of learning, whereas for students (Richards and

Schmidt, 2002), the context is the environment, in which the language is used. Context clues include verbal and non-verbal signs that help understanding meaning. Language use is the choice of language used in each context (ibid), there are two types of language use: transactional and interactional. The latter has a communication purpose, whereas the former has many functions like the teacher giving homework and the doctor giving instructions to the patient (Gary, 2001). All types of knowledge should be together in decoding the message otherwise; understanding would be difficult.
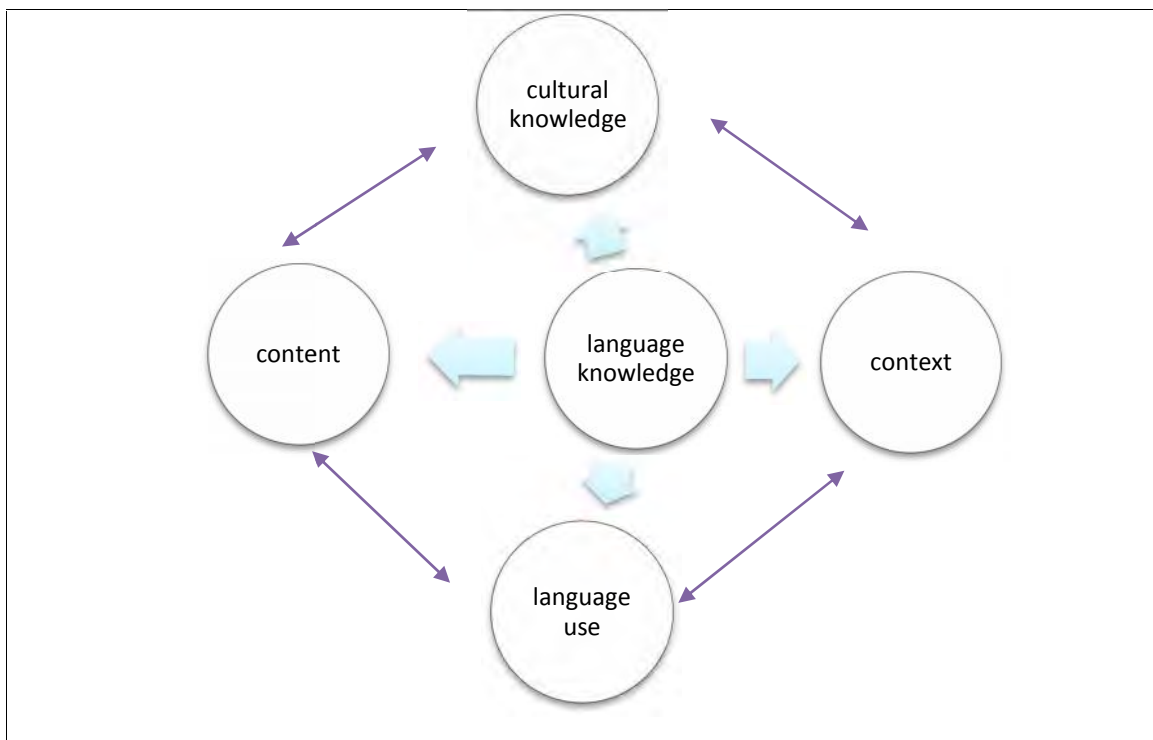
Figure 2.3. Relationship between Different Language Domains (Saville-Troike, 2005)

2.5.3.2. Teacher's Body Language

The teacher's body language is a group of gestures, eye contact and facial expressions. Tatham and Morton (2006: 266) say that even *"[i]n human –human communication systems involving face – to face interaction, body language and facial*

gestures are important; they add to the vocal message". So according to that, body language and facial expressions play a vital role in language comprehension. Stern (1999; cited in Ciaccio, 2004) finds that 55 percent of feedback is body language, 38 percent tone of voice, and just 7 percent is verbal. Lyster (2007) argues that: *"to further facilitate comprehension, teachers rely on extensive body language, including gestures and facial expressions, and a range of paralinguistic elements."* (60)

Morss and Murray (2005) identified that many elements are combined to improve lectures, which are research, plan, structure, delivery i.e. body language, visual aids and strategies. Massaro and Egan (1996) say,

> *[I]n real life, speakers can also add to the communication process facial expression, hand gestures, and other body movements- all providing information to assist the listener process of assigning semantic (plain) meaning and emotive meaning to the detected signal* (cited in Tatham and Morton, 2006: 271).

Jordens (2006) argues, *"the knowledge of non –verbal means of communication, such as body language, facial expressions or eye contact, also plays an important role in the appropriate interpretation of a given spoken text"* (39). Lyster (2007) argues that teachers, to facilitate comprehension, *"rely on extensive body language, including gestures and facial expressions, and a range of paralinguistic elements"* (60)**.** Lynch (2009) emphasizes the use of body language to support the spoken language. He says that Riley (1981) defines five basic functions of visual information: *deictic* (means pointing), *interactional* (means to adjust the body positions as turn taking), *modal* (giving facial expressions such as eyebrow up and mouth turned down at the corners to

react on someone's decision)*, indexical* (to point at the self –clothes or posture), and *linguistic* (substituting some verbal expressions).

2.5.3.3. Teacher-Students' Interaction

In second or foreign language classrooms, students are the listeners, and since teachers make the lectures and the latter are generally presented orally, which make them difficult to some extent. Grauberg (1997) argues the same idea saying that words while they are uttered, they are gone unless there is "cooperation" with the speaker or the recorder, but it is not like the printed copy. Anderson and Lynch (1988) suggest the following skills: spoken sounds should be identified, segmenting the speech into words, grasping the syntax of utterances, and making an appropriate response.

Brown (2006) says that for native speakers when listening to some other native speaker talking, they feel relaxed even if many words could miss, but at the same time, they can interpret what was said; which is not the case in second language learners, especially if a series of words are not identified. Al-Mutawa and Kailani (1989) argue that teachers should make the students listen to native speakers of the target language. So, students should (a) distinguish between the different sounds, words and structures, (b) associate meaning with words, (c) infer meaning, (d) process meaning, (e) understand conversational English of all kinds in all situations, and (f) understand, evaluate, take notes and retrieve information.

Wubbels and his colleagues (1999, cited in Marzano, 2003) argue that the teacher should be effective and as well as friendly, helpful, congenial, understand the students; listen to them, in addition to that, the teacher should not be aggressive, sarcastic or quick – tempered. Marzano (2003) identifies a list of strategies that teacher should follow when interacting with students. This includes:

1.   keeping eye contact with all students,

2.   making moves around the room to be close to each student,

3.   giving chance to students who are not used to participate and not just students who are used to do so,

4.   the ownership of ideas to the students who gave them, and

5.   make sure he gives enough "wait time" for students to give their answers no matter how were their previous answers or their abilities.

2.5.3.4. Schemata

McGee (1996: 5) defines a schema as *"a mental structure in which we store all the information we know about people, places, objects, or activities"* (cited in Moreillon, 2007: 18). Knapp and Antos (2009: 228) say that the classical schema theory defines schemata as *"relatively static mental representations of typical instances of things, texts or events"*, whereas the old schemata is decayed or adapted with the existing schemata. According to Lynch (2006: 93), schemata are *"the relevant packages of prior knowledge and experience that we have in memory and can call on in the process of comprehension"*, whereas Saha and Dworkin (2009: 1023) define a schema is *"a concept used to account for how we encode and represent social information"*. Schemata are divided them into two types: content and formal schemata. Content schemata are *"networks of knowledge gained from a range of sources and also personal experience"*, whereas formal schemata are *"derived from our knowledge of the structure of discourse genres, e.g. an academic lecture, a sermon"* (Lynch, ibid: 93). According to Martinez-Flor and Usé-Juan (2006), having knowledge of both types may largely facilitate listening comprehension.

Lapp and Fisher (2011: 41) define it as *"mental structures in which we store information we know define a schema. We store information about concepts or schemas and call them to mind to predict, generalize, and infer"*.

Schemata has different functions which are as follows:

• They experience structure;

• Information in the memory are retrieved and decoded;

• Information processing and problem solving speed are affected by them;

• The person is able to support the missing data using them;

• They structure missing data, evaluation and goal setting; and

• They make individual routines automatic. (Taylor and Crocker, 1981 cited in Saha and Dworkin, ibid)

In listening comprehension, listeners use background knowledge, which is the different types of schemata stored in long-term memory, and use them to elaborate and monitor new information. Reynolds and Miller (2003) argue that learners use both what the instructor gives them and the existing knowledge, which are different schemas in the mind. In the same vein, Rost (2006) finds that schemata help to process communication quickly, that is to say, each time one reads, hears or observes something new, s/he creates new schemas by relating a piece of information with another one using logical and semiotic links.

2.6.   Factors Influencing Listening Comprehension

Learning a second/foreign language is not just acquiring lists of words and learning the grammar of that language, but it is more than that. Many factors are included in learning a foreign language: culture, prior knowledge, context, self-concept, physical and psychological states and listener apprehension. The aspect of teaching culture is

very important in language teaching and learning. Lyster (2005: 154), in arguing the importance of culture, says *"Knowledge of culture includes content, context, and linguistic elements in important respects"*. Whereas Crowley (2007) argues the same idea saying:

> *Any linguist who aims to learn to acquire a speaking knowledge of the language that he or she is studying clearly has to understand at least some of the community in order to understand what people mean by what they are saying* (20).

According to Celce-Murcia (2007), if the goal of language teaching is communicative competence, the cultural and cross-cultural instruction must be taken into consideration. From the rich sources of identifying culture are videos. Shrum and Glisan (1994) argue this point saying that videos can be used to teach culture because they give *"an image of a living vibrant people who use the target language for daily communication"* (519).

According to Hirai *et al.* (2010), prior knowledge or knowledge already existing in long-term memory is useful to understand the new information. Commins (2008: 67) defines prior knowledge as the *"skills, beliefs, and concepts significantly influence what learners notice about their environment, and how they organize and interpret their observations"*. According to Saville-Troike (2005), background knowledge helps to organize information as well as make guesses about what is coming next. Lyster (2007) emphasizes the role of background knowledge in aiding comprehension, and at the same time, they ask their students to help each other in understanding content materials. According to Johnson (2005), *"effective learners use their background knowledge effectively while employing procedures"* and prior knowledge can be several types: domain, cultural, linguistic, contextual, textual and world. Johnson (ibid) says that the more students have background knowledge, the more accurate and successful guesses

they make. In listening comprehension, Goh (2005: 73) argues, *"there is general consensus that language learners, regardless of their level of listening competence regularly draw on background knowledge to fill in the gaps in their understanding."*

Gudykunst and Kim (1992), in discussing the topic of context, two types of context come to the surface: external and internal context. The former is *"the settings or locations where the interaction takes place and the meanings the society attaches to them"*, whereas the latter is *"the culture the interactants bring the contexts"* (912). Kramsch (1993) argues about the same idea that teachers should help foreign language learners to discover the meanings of texts under hand through explorations of the contexts. According to Carrier (1999: 65) who argues, about listening and comprehension, that *"real – life listening does not occur in a vacuum but rather in a rich social context"*, Carrier (ibid) examined how social context influences listening comprehension, and paid more attention to the effects interlocutors have on listening. Morley (2001) discussed another element that is related to listening comprehension and social context that is to say the language used is not just verbal, but the speaker can use non – verbal language, which includes eye contact, body postures, facial expressions and using the space. Marinez-Flor and Usé-Juan (2006) add to the same idea that listeners must be aware of the differences that these facial expressions can cause since some expressions may mean one thing in this culture and the opposite in the other, for that listeners should interpret these postures according to the context.

Self-concept is *"personal interpretations of one's overall worth"* (Balli, 2009: 19), which is used interchangeably with the term self-efficacy which means, *"personal interpretations that vary according to domain"* (ibid). Brophy (1998) makes the link between self -concept and success; he argues that successful students seem to be more self-concept than those who are less successful. Lewis and McCain (2009) confirm that

less self-concept students feel accepted by their teachers only if they give a successful response that is to be as their teachers expect them to be.

The physical state of a person plays a role to some extent in determining the success in any course. Pain, aches or any other type of illness, on the one side, or shyness, anxiety or family problems on the other side may influence language learning. Sinagatullin (2009) includes learners' styles as a psychological characteristic that influence language learning like visual, auditory and kinesthetic styles of learning.

In the language classroom, students may find difficulties in coping with other students or even with teachers; consequently, they may find problems in language understanding and more precisely in listening comprehension. According to Aniero (2005), listener apprehension is called listening anxiety, too. According to Aniero, listening anxiety is what makes poor performance in listening (Rost, 2005). Krashen (2005, 1994) in the affective filter hypothesis claims that L2 learners acquire language when there is low-anxiety, high self-esteem and motivation (Ulanoff, 2009).

Conclusion

The listening skill is an important skill in language learning/acquisition, and listening comprehension is of great importance, too. The learner of a second or foreign language should acquire different skills in order to understand their teachers, native speakers make the difference between the main and the less important ideas, and even understand teachers' or native speakers' body language.

CHAPTER THREE

The Role of Taking Notes in Vocabulary learning/Acquisition

Introduction

For many years, students at universities take notes while they listen to their teachers for the sake of having a reference for exams. Taking notes or making notes, could be from written texts and is generally done in order to write a dissertation. Even if this skill is of great importance in the students' process of learning, it is not given importance knowing that it is a skill which students do not use even at advanced levels. This is why students are taught how to take notes in order to have appropriate and effective notes. We depart from the belief that comprehension affects taking notes, and that the notes taken affect performance and vocabulary acquisition.

3.1. Taking Notes Skills

Taking notes, as a major skill in the language class, is given importance by both students and teachers.

3.1.1. Definition of Taking Notes

Taking notes is a technique used by "every student" at the university, and it is a critical component of the learning process for the majority of students (Gerung and Schwartz, 2009).

Before defining taking notes, it is worthy to start with the concept "technique". A technique is the activity which is used in classrooms, like drills, note taking and role-play (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). A major component of taking notes is abbreviations. According to Crystal (1994:122), abbreviations are *"... one of the noticeable features of present-day English linguistic life..."*   Moreover, the use of abbreviations is very important especially with the new fields like technology; but abbreviations have origins since 1839, where a writer in the *"New York Evening*

Tattler" commented on the use of some short forms of words among loafers and gentlemen, and even some writers in the sake of saving many problems in writing.

Marzano (2007) argues that students must make the difference between important and unimportant ideas of lectures, he called both modalities *"linguistic"* and *"non linguistic"* respectively.

Note taking has huge effects on the students in their progress, according to Baily (2003:18) *"effective note-making is a key writing skill … good note-making techniques lead to accurate essays"*. For Carrier (2003:395), *"effective note-taking can help students to guess at meaning in a post-listening the review of notes, especially when comprehension is limited during the listening event"*.

According to James, Jordan and Matthews (1979), taking notes develops students' deep understanding of lectures, whereas Jones and Mort (1994) argue that good note taking prevents students from plagiarism. Moreover, taking notes is by far an effective students' affair, that is to say, *"effective students have developed skills that help them learn from lectures; for example, they take notes and use them later to guide their study"* (Ormrod, 2000: 20). The importance of note taking lies in helping students to integrate and process knowledge (Hill and Flynn, 2006).

Another distinction is sometimes made between note taking and note making. According to Jordan (1997), note taking is to write whatever one hears or reads using the same words; whereas note making needs the hearer to be independent, summarizing, paraphrasing and asking questions in the sense of commenting or checking concepts. However, Jordan (ibid) generalizes note taking to be a general term which is used frequently in favor of making notes.

Moreillon (2005: 155) differentiates between note making and note taking as follows: *"recording information in one's own words is what distinguishes note making from note taking"*, in the sense that note making requires from the learner to record information depending to his/her prior knowledge and main ideas to record. Whereas, note taking is related to writing; the learner passes through the text and records what he/ she thinks is important.

3.1.2.   Taking Notes in the Language Classroom

Whenever it is possible, language learners try to take notes while their teachers are lecturing. However, the process of note taking is not as easy as it seems for students. According to James (1977; cited in Jordan, 1997) there are several problems while listening to a lecture; these problems are *"broad areas"*: decoding, comprehension and taking notes. First, students may face problems of recognizing the phonological sounds and may go further to the non-understanding of the colloquial use of language as well as the idiomatic expressions. Second, if students fail in decoding the language, it is sure that they are going to fail in comprehension. Thirdly, taking notes is another area of difficulty which makes students confuse between important and unimportant ideas, when to write the ideas and the ability to write suitable abbreviations which will be used in the future (Jordan, 1997).

According to Rost (2005), taking notes has been used during listening methodologies in order to facilitate comprehension in L2. Rost argues that taking notes facilitate listening in two ways: *"through assistance with encoding and through assistance with retrieval"* (517). The former helps in *"condensing, evaluating, and organizing lecture content while listening and thus of increasing comprehension"* (514), whereas note taking through retrieval leads to the transfer of content to the long-term memory and makes it easy when recalling it from memory.

Ormrod (1999, 2000) cites seven key elements in study techniques, one of which is taking notes, in other words, *"effective students have developed skills that help them learn from lectures; for example, they take notes and use them later to guide their study..."* (533, cited in Westwood, 2008: 20).

According to Ormrod (ibid), there are students who take every single word said by teachers, whereas others write nothing. In the same vein and according to Hale (1983), note taking helps in good language performance: *"students must learn to tie notes to instructional objectives, summarize main ideas, and include details to link main themes with overall knowledge"* (540) (cited in Crespi and Bieu, 2005). Note taking, summarizing and highlighting are more writing strategies that support listening and reading more than developing the writing competence (Hurd and Lewis, 2008).

According to Jordan (1997), if students want to take quick notes, they should be in the following. First, students should omit long sentences but focus on key words. Second, students should focus on important sentences which give main ideas including words like nouns mostly and verbs or adjectives sometimes. Third, the notes should be in phrases rather than complete sentences. Finally, the use of symbols and signs should be focused that is, symbols should not be unfamiliar to students.

Pauk (1989) defines his five Rs of note taking which are record, reduce, recite, reflect, reflect, and review. The first stage is to "Record" the main ideas of a lecture, including the identification of the main points and using charts and maps. Students using abbreviations have to capture ideas quickly and they do not use quotes unless they are necessary. The second stage which is "Reduce" (or think aloud), students try to write key words and concepts and any questions about the lesson. In the third stage "Recite", students use their memory in order to recall what they learned during the lesson. In this stage, students try to answer their questions and give their own examples

of the lesson. The fourth stage "Reflect" is also called "think over", which means to link the information in the lesson in hand and the existing information. The last stage "Review" means to revise the notes before the next session and before any test.

The importance of note taking lies in the following elements, *"as a mnemonic device, to prepare for exams, to reinforce or compare information contained in the textbook and lectures, and to increase attention during the lecture"* Dunkel and Davy (1989: 188). Hill and Flynn (2006) suggest four generalizations for note taking which are:

• Verbatim note taking is the least effective way to take notes which means that students write every single word they hear, this prevent them from synthesizing information;

• Notes should be considered as works continuing to progress, that is to say, students reflect on their notes and even can add some additional graphics in addition to teachers' information;

• Notes are a guide for coming tests; the revised and modified notes are a good aid for tests' performance; and

• It is true that there is a strong relation, between taking notes and performance but it is not true that the more students take notes is the better for achievement.

In order to teach students' good note taking skills, Hill and Flynn (ibid) provides three recommendations for teachers. First, teachers should give students prepared notes, this gives them an example of how organized notes should be. Second, teachers should teach students different formats of taking notes, for example the informal outline (which includes indentations to separate main ideas). Other examples are the webbing (use of visual representations), and combining the two previous examples to have combination notes. According to McCarty (2007), students generally write on their notebooks words translated to their first language, which is not just the only function of note taking.

Taking notes consists of labeling, pictures and diagrams, completing charts and word webs, writing true sentences, creating short dialogues and many other functions.

3.1.3.   Taking Notes Processes

Taking notes is a three-stage process: before, during and after. In the before class stage, students before coming to the next class should review their notes of the previous lecture: this helps understanding the new information. Moreover, students must get other information about the new lecture and prepare questions, so that they understand better. According to Jones and Mort (1994), students could prepare their notebooks when they know that they are going to start a new lecture.   During class, students should take, first, into consideration some tips like getting earlier, i.e. before the teacher, and get ready by keeping extra pens and never forget their notebooks. In this stage, students are not advised to take detailed notes during the class because it affects *"attention in content"* (Marzano, 2007).

Before starting taking notes, students write first the topic, the date, the class and subject. In a lecture, the topic is generally the main idea of the lecture and students can check it in the syllabus. Moreover, the main ideas for students could be vocabulary words, dates, concepts and theories (Rauschhaupt, 2002).

During the lectures, students should pay attention to their teachers and forget about the other distractions like other students' talk or noise coming from outside (discussed in Chapter Two). Students, too, must bear in mind the different cues that help them in understanding and comprehending teachers like gestures (body language), intonation and voice change which is emphasized by Jones and Mort (1994) saying that looking at non-verbal cues provided by lecturer like facial expressions, voice change and body signals which give extra information .

James, Jordan and Matthews (1979) argue that the lecture time may not be sufficient to write all the information, so it is important to rewrite down as soon as possible; otherwise, important information could be missed. So using abbreviations may help overcoming this difficulty. After Class, the notes taken should be rewritten by substituting the abbreviations by full words, and key words and ideas by full definitions. If there are any questions, students can get information using textbooks; if not, they could ask their teachers or peers. Just after the class finishes, students take their notes, read, and reread them until the misunderstanding of some notes goes away. Students with the use of cues, understanding could be easier. The cues can be in the form of questions, categories (many key words put under one heading), vocabulary and notifications. Any unanswered questions or vague ideas, students should ask their teachers at the beginning of the next session (Rauschhaupt, 2002).

Reviewing the notes during twenty-four hour makes remembering of the lectures much easier (Jones and Mort, 1994). According to Rauschhaupt (ibid), reviewing for tests should be by answering the questions asked about any lecture, this help the students recall and rehearse lectures with great ease.

3.2. Listening Comprehension and Taking Notes

In any listening situation in classrooms, students may take notes if they want to have a record for the future. If students do not understand what they are listening to, they cannot take notes, which means that there is a relationship between listening comprehension and the types of taking notes.

3.2.1. Relationship between Listening Comprehension and Taking Notes

There is a strong relation between the listening ability, that is comprehension and note taking. In a study done by Shang and Ko (2007) which is called *The Impact of Note-Taking on University EFL Learners Listening Comprehension"*, they came with

major results as that students could not take notes because they lack vocabulary. This contradicts the study of Zheng (1996) and the study of Lin (2004) who found that taking notes prevented students from listening. Shang and Ko found that taking notes makes students concentrate and pay attention more because they were afraid of missing some words when they jot words down. As a major result, they found that the first time students look at their notes and their key words, they could recall information.

In another study of Campbell (1973), he reported that:

> *About 85 per cent of the students interviewed complained of the difficulties faced in their studies, whether it be language or difficulty in taking notes... practically, all students admitted that at first there was a problem of comprehending lectures because of learners' accents* (cite in Jordan, 1997: 50).

Dunkel (1988) concluded his study on 66 Ns and 63 NNs saying:

> *The effective L1 and L2 note-takers where those who compacted large amounts of spoken discourse into prepositional-type information units; transcribed content words using abbreviations, symbols and a limited number of structure words... Terseness of taking notes ... rather than where quantity seems to be an essential ingredient of effective L1/ L2 note-taking* (Jordan, ibid).

The conclusion of Dunkel implies that teachers should provide students with "skeleton notes" so that they concentrate on content.

Hantarais (1989: 71) notes, *"[research] shows that students who make notes retain more information than those who do not. By making notes, you have a record which you can refer back to at later stage."*(cited in Field, 1999: 204). In a more recent research investigated by Kiewra and Benton (1988) and Lin (2004) on the relevance between note taking from lectures and academic achievement, the researchers came with the conclusion that *"to enhance EFL students' listening performance, it is essential for instructions to teach effective note-taking skills to contribute to the improvement for academic performance"* (Shang and Ko, 2007: 265). Piolat (2007), on the other hand, argues that note takers must understand and note information at the same time, and have to be in the same pace with the lecturer.

Rost (2005) argues that the more notes are accurate, complete and clear, the more comprehension students gain which in turn help them to reconstruct ideas and information. Some of the studies, which investigate taking notes and comprehension, are discussed in Rost (2005). Dunkel, Mishra and Berliner (1989) investigated if note taking positively affects remembering and understanding or not. The finding was that there was no difference between students who take notes and those who do not and just keep listening. In another study done by Chaudron, Loschky and cook (1994) on a group of students who retained notes after lecture and another group who did not, they found that there was no difference in test scores between the two groups. Ellis (2003) justifies the findings of both studies to the lack of quality since the effective notes to comprehension are the ones which are accurate, complete and clear enough to reconstruct ideas and information. Therefore, the key element in successful listening comprehension is the notes quality. In trying to answer this question, Dunkel (1988) finds that there are the two key variables in notes are:

> *Terseness (i.e. the ration between the number of information units encoded and the number of words used in the notes) and answerability (i.e. the extent to which the notes included information relating to the test items)* (Rost, 2005: 519).

Students are said to be successful when they can take notes using the words which occur in listening, and when they use the notes taken in any test performance.

3.2.2. The Lecture

The lecture at university is the main tool used to deliver information and knowledge to students. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), any lecture is a process of three steps. The entry is the part that begins the lesson; in this part, students should be told the goals and what is expected from the lecture. A successful lecture contains an outline which includes the goals of the teacher, the activities that will be achieved including the time allocated for each activity, and the materials to be used in the lesson, or what is called lesson structure. The closure is the last part of the lesson which gives an end to the lesson. A good closure of a lesson is the one which *"reinforces the key teaching points of the lesson and help students transfer learning to the text lesson"*.

Hopkins (2008: 170) suggests that, the whole class-model of teaching includes the five stages in the table below.

1.   **Review:**

- Reviewing main points of the last lesson, that is reviewing the homework

2.   **Presentation information**

- Lecture or talk
o   Previewing the outline and the purpose of the lesson
o   Identifying the lesson's key terms or concepts
o   Starting with what is familiar to students to what is unknown

- Demonstration
o   Preliminaries –a guide as to what to do observe and expect
o   Preview –purpose is outlined
o   Rehearsal –teachers go through each stage
o   Reprise –procedures are repeated

3.   **Involving students in discussion**

- Make students understand through fast-paced discussion
- Using high-quality questions to assess comprehension

4.   **Engaging students in learning activities:**

- Content activities should be designed
- Implementation of learning activities

5.   **Summary and review**

- Students ask follow-up questions, share findings and conclusions
- Teacher reinforces key points, emphasizes central ideas and sums up achievements.

Table 3.1. Whole Class Model of Teaching (Hopkins, 2008: 170)

According to Christison and Krahnke (1986), Ferris and Tagg (1996) and powers (1986), one of the major criteria in language success is lecture comprehension in the sense that students know the purpose of lectures, the relationship between ideas and make difference between important ideas and least important ones.

Dudley-Evans and Jones (1981) after a series of experiments come to distinguish three styles of lectures: reading style, conversational style and rhetorical style. The first has to do the teacher reads from notes (or pretending he/she is doing), the second means the lecturer speaks without notes, whereas the third is the lecturer like a performer in the sense that s/he uses a large proportion of intonation and frequent asides and digressions (Jordan, 1997).

3.2.3. Important or Unimportant Ideas?

Students generally are not certain about whether to write or not to write an idea, whether an information is important or not? This can cause troubles to students, especially when they do not have any reference of their lectures. Jung (2003) discusses the importance of cues in listening comprehension on L1 students, which in turn could be hypothesized that the presence of these cues in L2 listening is beneficial.

Chaudron and Richards (1986) find in a research that macro-markers help students in lecture comprehension, and more than that, they find that macro-markers alone are conductive to comprehension than the mixture between macro and micro-markers. According to Jordan (1997), students may differentiate between important and unimportant ideas by first prosodic features like stress and intonation, that is to say, teachers raise their voices and make a rising intonation when they give important ideas. Second, students should identify where teachers use lexical connectors like numbers when moving from one element to the other. Jordan (ibid) gives a list of markers that lecturers use in order to differentiate between important and unimportant ideas; he calls them micro-markers and macro-markers. DeCarrico and Nattinger (1988) use the same terms with a slight difference because they prefer to call macro-organizers instead of markers. Micro-markers are words or expressions like *well, OK, and, right and then*, whereas macro-organizers are divided into eight functional categories: topic markers,

topic shifters, summarizers, exemplifiers, relators, evaluators, qualifiers and aside markers. These markers are in turn divided into two types: global macro-organizers that include the three first organizers cited above; whereas local macro-organizers include the last five above. The difference between the two is that the former concerns the overall organization of the lecture, whereas the latter highlight the importance of the information. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992: 95-96) give examples of each of the above organizers.

Topic markers

What I (mainly) wanted to talk/tell you about was X; let's look at X; what do you know of X? Have you heard /did you hear about X? Let me start with X; the first thing is …

Topic shifters

Ok, now, ….; (with falling intonation + pause); that reminds me of X; I'd like/I wanted to ask you about X; by the way; this is off the subject but X

Summarizers

Ok so; so then (both with level intonation, no pause); in a nutshell; that's about it/all there is to it; remember that this means X; in effect; to make a long story short; what I'm trying to say is X

Local (subordinate) macro-organizers

Exemplifiers

How about X? X, something like that; it's like X; in other words; for example/instance; to give (you) an example

Relators

None the less; however; and also; not only X but (also) Y; it has to do with X; same way here; but look at…..; the other (thing) X is Y

Evaluators (commitment to a point of view)

I think/don't think that X; as far as I know/can tell; (there's) no doubt that X; I'm absolutely (positive/certain/sure) that X; X might not work

Qualifiers

It/that/you sort of …..; the catch is; it depends on X; it's only in X that Y; it doesn't mean that X; that's true but X; at least in….

Asides

Where was I? I guess I got off the track here; I guess that's beside the point; I 'm going ahead of myself here

According to James, Jordan and Matthews (1979), there are some signals which allow students to take notes and differentiate between what is important and what is not. Some examples of important ideas is that the teacher may say *"this is important, write it down"*, and s/he may say the information loudly, slowly and with greater stress.

Jordan (1997) defines three types of listening cues based on Tyler *et al.* (1988) which are prosodic features (stress, intonation and pauses), subordinating syntactic structures (like relative clauses, noun complements and subordinate clauses) and lexical discourse markers (logical connecters, number and other phrases), in addition to body language and facial expressions which are discussed in chapter two.

3.2.4. Types of Note Taking

Jordan (1997) provides four types of note taking. The first type is topic-relation notes, which includes topicalizing − writing down a word or phrase to represent a section of the text; translating − writing down L1 equivalent of topic; copying − writing down verbatim what the lecturer has written on the blackboard (overhead projector, etc.); transcribing (writing down verbatim what the lecturer has said; and schematizing − inserting graphics (e.g. diagrams) to organize or represent a topic or relationship. The second type is concept ordering notes which include sequence cuing − listing topics in order, numbering; hierarchy cuing − labeling notes as main point (key finding, ordering conclusion, etc.) or example (quote, anecdote, etc.); and relation ordering − left-to-right indenting, using arrows, dashes, semi-circles, or = signs to indicate relation among topics. The third type is focusing notes divided into two which are highlighting − underlining, placing, a dot or arrow in front of a topic, circling a topic word and highlighting −writing in smaller letters or placing topic inside parentheses. The fourth type includes revising notes which includes inserting − drawing arrow back to earlier notes, inserting with caret and erasing − crossing out old notes.

Brookfield (2007) discusses another type of notes which is very important to students in case of lectures, which is "scaffolding notes". Scaffolding notes are:

> *Skeleton notes that summarizes the contours of a lecture for students. They are provided beforehand either electronically or in paper and give enough information so that students can follow the lecture's progress but not so much as to make actually showing up a duplication of effort* (107).

Brookfield (2007) adds that in addition to the skeleton notes, it must be a space that is left to students to write and add extra information by their own.

3.3. Methods of Taking Notes

A series of studies investigated the effective method of taking notes to help students to succeed. The following are examples, Boyle and Weishaar, 2001; Dye, 2000; Foo et al., 1994; Kiewra, 1991; Kiewra and Benton, 1988; Kiewra, DuBois, Christian, McShane, Meyerhoffer and Roskelley, 1991; Kiewra, Benton, Kim, Risch and Christenson, 1995; Robinson and Kiewra, 1995; Robinson, Katayama, DuBois and De Vey, 1998; Roussey and Piolat, 2003, and Ruhl and Suritsky, 1995. Among these, Kiewra, et al. (1991) who investigates the effectiveness of conventional, matrix and outline format in comparison with the linear method which is commonly used according to Piolat (2007). The results show that the outline format help to retain information whereas the matrix format helps to memorize and connect factual information, the pre-printed outline, on the other hand, help to retain facts (Piolat, 2007).

Taking notes is not all the time done in one way, one way can fit one lecture and does not fit another. There are five methods of taking notes: the Cornell method, the Outline method, the Mapping method, the Charting method and the Sentence method.

3.3.1. The Cornell Method

Professor Walter Pauk first introduced the Cornell method in the Cornell University in 1950's. This method is effective in all classes; the notes can be taken from lectures or from textbooks.

The notes in the Cornell Method should be arranged in a specific way on the notebook or students can download specific papers from the net. There are three main parts in the downloaded paper; the main part is called note-taking column and is left for

lectures' information and it takes the largest space. The second part is on the left and its function is to write the cues or main topics in the main space, it is called the cue-column. The third column is called summary column and comes at the bottom of the paper, and as the name indicates, it is left for lectures' summaries. The following figure represents the way the Cornell Method sheets or notebooks should look like.

Cue column	Note taking column
summary section	
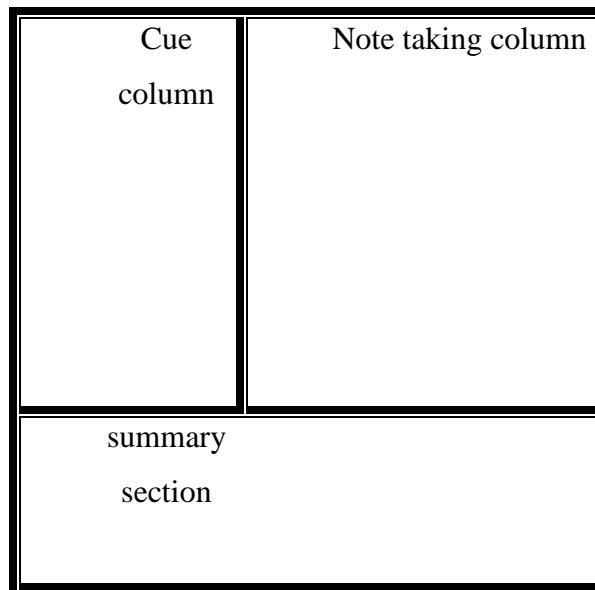
Figure 3.1. The Cornell Method (Rauschhaupt, 2010).

According to Rauschhaupt (ibid), there are many advantages of the Cornell method summarized as:

• Keeps students' notes organized, so they can revise and review them later,

• Allows students to find important information easier,

• Focuses on important concepts like vocabulary words, dates, people, theories and processes,

• Provides an efficient method of taking notes during any kind of lecture,

• Allows for an easier way to study that can lead to higher grades in college, and

• Allows students to review for tests in an organized way.

3.3.2.   The Outline Method

In the Outline Method, information of the lecture is used one after the other using dashes at the beginning of each new idea, and no other type of numeration is used. One of the criticisms to this method is that there is no difference between one important idea and another which is not. According to Rauschhaupt (2010, 4), *"this format can be most effective when your note-taking skills are supper and sharp and you can handle the outlining regardless of the note-taking situation"*. This means that if the students master the note taking skills, they can manipulate any type regardless of the lecture's type.

The next figure represents an outline taken from a lecture about the circulatory system, that is to say how blood cells function in the human body and what are their parts.

The Circulatory System
Transport systems

Three Functions
• Carries food and oxygen
• Carries waste from cells
• Protects body from disease

Three Parts
• Heart
• Blood vessels
• Blood

One of Four Parts
• Plasma
• Red blood cells
• White blood cells
• Platelets
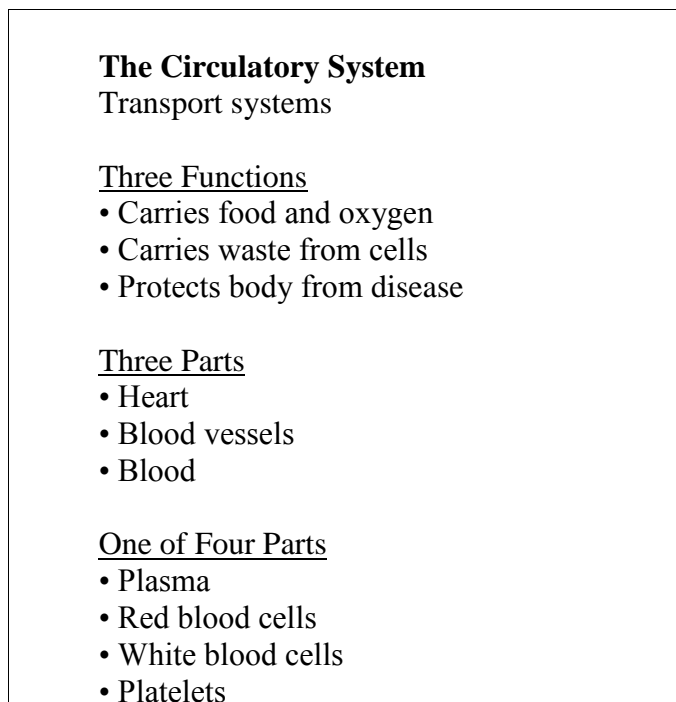
Figure 3.2. The Outline Method (Hill and Flynn, 2006: 72).

3.3.3.   The Mapping Method

Mapping uses graphics in taking notes of the lectures. It gives the lecture a visual representation, and according to Rauschhaupt (ibid), it helps to develop critical thinking. Jones and Mort (1994) call this type concept mapping and recommend using A4 size papers in order to add as much notes as students can. This type of note taking is mainly used when there is no other way to present a lecture. When there is a guest lecturer and students cannot identify the type of the lesson, they may use the Mapping Method.

Buzan in his book *"Use Your Mind"* in 1989 introduced the term mind mapping, and in some references, it is called "nuclear notes".

The following is a map of characteristics of reptiles (a class example).
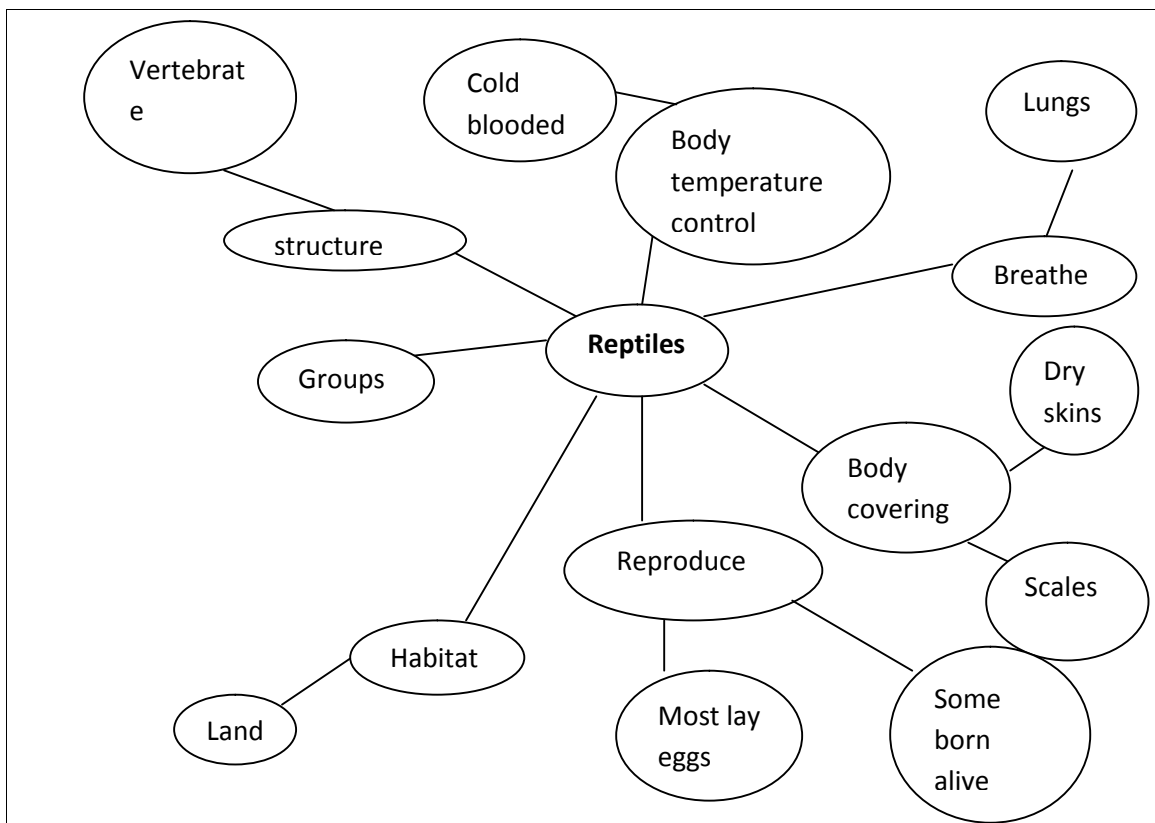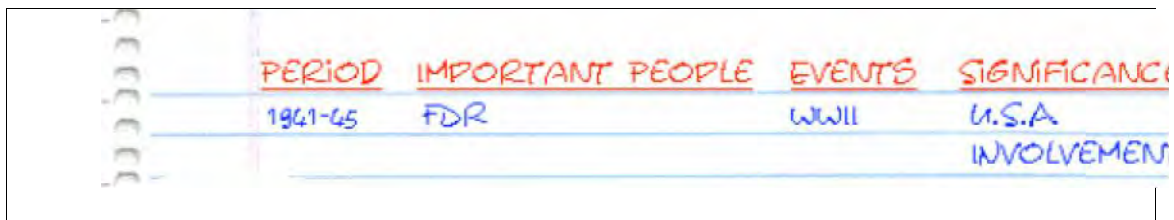
Figure 3.3. The Mapping Method (Hill and Flynn, 2006: 42).

The mapping method is called graphic organizer, too because it combines between linguistic and nonlinguistic information (Hill and Flynn, ibid).

3.3.4.   The Charting Method

The Charting Method is more used when the lecture is distinct like chronology in a historical event. Learners draw in advance on their notebooks columns with titles which allow them to fill them with appropriate information which make them save time. What follows is an example of how a chart looks like in case of a lecture about history.

Figure 3.4. The Chart Method Example

Instead of using columns, students are required to write sub-titles and under them the suitable information related to it. In this way and in future use, students find their notes organized and each event or period of time has its details next to it.

3.3.5.   The Sentence Method

In the Sentence Method, each new idea is written on a separate line and numeration is very important.

The Sentence Method is very useful when the lecture is organized, but it is very heavy when the content is delivered too fast. One major disadvantage of this method is that students cannot make differences between important and unimportant ideas.
The following is an example of the Sentence Method.

> **Definition of revolution:**
>
> "A revolution is any occurrence that affects other aspects of life, such as economic life, social life, and so forth. Therefore, revolutions cause change. (See page 29 to 30 in your text about this.)".
>
> **The sentence method of note taking:**
>
> "Revolution – occurrence that affects other aspects of life: e.g., econ., socl Etc. C.f. text, pp. 29-30."

Figure 3.5. The Sentence Method of Note Taking

As the first part of the example, the definition of the word revolution is given in full words, whereas in the second part, it is given with some abbreviations. The difference between this method and others is that in the other methods, there is no use of full sentences, but the use of short forms and phrases is required.

3.4.   Abbreviations and Symbols

During classes, it is important to take notes using abbreviations since it is impossible to catch every single word said by teachers. Students use abbreviations to give them time to understand and at the same time, to keep concentrating. Using too many abbreviations is not recommended, because students can forget meanings of symbols. So, they should develop a unified system of abbreviations. Baily(2003) argues that *"clarity"* and *"organization"* are very important in taking notes even if students are the only ones who are going to read ther notes. There are some abbreviated words which are known by the majority of people, as they are separate words like radar, which is a machine used in roads to control cars' speed. Other words like AIDS and laser, too, are used and pronounced as a full word (Plag, 2002).

3.4.1.   Jones and Mort Classification

According to Jones and Mort (1994), there are three types of abbreviations.

- **Common Abbreviations:** these abbreviations are much more derived from the Latin language like:

a.   E.g. which is derived from the acronym "exempla grate" meaning "for example",

b.   NB which is derived from the acronym "nota benne" meaning "note well",

c.   No. which is a shortened form of "numero" and means "number", and

d.   Etc. that is acronym of "et cetera" which means "and so on".

- **Discipline- specific Abbreviations:** this type of abbreviations is used mostly in scientific and technical fields like in chemistry: "Au" for gold and "GM" for magnesium and in case of quantities and concepts, they are replaced by Greek letters.

- **Personal Abbreviations:** in this type, anyone uses his/her own abbreviations in condition; s/he will understand and keep the same symbols. In learning English, for example, the names of modules are abbreviated like in other fields like: Ling. for Linguistics, W.E. for Written Expression and T.E.F.L for Teaching English as a Foreign Language; and in some modules like Linguistics, some used terms are abbreviated as L1, MT and F/S L for First Language, Mother Tongue and Foreign/ Second Language, respectively.

3.4.2.   Crystal Classification

According to Crystal (1994), there are more than three types, but six types of abbreviations which are as follows.

- **Initialisms:** the words are abbreviated using the first letters of each word as *"BBC"* and *"USA"*, but in some cases they take the first two letters like *"Ph.D"* which take the first two letters of the word *"philosophy"*, or the word *"TV"* which takes the first and the middle letters from television.

- **Acronyms:** these are initialisms, but unlike the initialisms, these acronyms are pronounced like one word such as *"NATO, laser and UNISCO"*. These acronyms are not separated by dots like in old styles of English. Some linguists use the word initialisms for both the first and the second types.

- **Clippings:** clipping means the keeping of one part of the word; it can be the first part as in *"exam"* and *"pub"* for examination and publicity, respectively; the second part like *"plane"* from airplane; or the middle part as in *"fridge"* and *"flu"* from refrigerator and influenza. There are some words which take more than one part of the word like: *"maths"* from mathematics in the UK; and other words are adapted from other languages like the word *"fries"* (fried potatoes) from French.

- **Blends:** two words are shortened in order to get one new word, for instance, *"breakfast +lunch= brunch"*, and *"helicopter+ airport= heliport"*. Blends are called acronyms when they are based on orthography (Plag, 2002).

- **Awkward Cases:** some words do not fall in any of the above four types. For example the word CDROM mixes the first types and pronounced "see-dee-rom"; other words add the affixes to one of the other types like pro- BBC; and other abbreviations are unique to writing like Mr. and Mrs.

- **Facetious Forms:** these are a group of words pronounced like acronyms but are expressions meaning something for a group of people, but in reality, they mean something else. For example, "TGIF" meaning "Thanks God It's Friday" or "CMG" which means "Call Me God" but properly means "Companion of St Michael and St George".

3.4.3. Lexicography Classification

From a lexicographical point of view, there are three types of abbreviations.

- **Alophabetism:** alophabetism is pronouncing a series of letters separately, but each letter represents a word like BBC.

- **Acronyms:** an acronym is the opposite of alphabetism, that is to say a group of letters which are pronounced as an independent word like NATO.

- **Contractions:** contraction is the omission of some letters from two words and pronouncing them as one like "can't" and "wouldn't" (Alkins, 2008).

Even if researchers tried to classify types of abbreviations and symbols, it remains that there is a resemblance between some of the types. For example, alphabetism and initialisms indicated by lexicographers and Crystal (1995) respectively, there is a difference in names but both of them refer to a group of letters pronounced separately like BBC and USA. Another example is acronyms which are used by Crystal (1995) and Jones and Mort (1994). Whereas the classification given by Jones and Mort (ibid) can include the two classifications, since all the abbreviations given by lexicographers and Crystal (ibid) could be under one of the three types given by Jones and Mort. For example, CDROM is a discipline-specific abbreviation.

Another idea which is related to abbreviations is that there are some abbreviated forms which are confusing like: PC which means personal computer, police constable (in Britain) and politically correct; CD which means compact disc and corps diplomatic; and PM which means prime minister and post meridian. It is useful to make students aware of these differences.

Abbreviations are culture specific. According to Davies (2005), who wrote his book *"Divided by A Common Language"* where he makes differences between both American and British English, among these differences is abbreviations. According to Davies (ibid), the symbol # is called *pound* in the USA whereas in the UK, it is *hash* or *square*. The second abbreviation is *plc* for Public Limited Company, which is used in

the UK as the abbreviation *Ltd*, but in the USA, they use the abbreviation *Inc.,* which means the same as the British abbreviation.

The following table identifies a list of abbreviations commonly used.

Abbreviation	The word	Abbreviation	The word
e.g.	For example	1st	first
i.e.	That is	2nd	second
Etc.	Etcetera: and so on	3rd	third
Cf.	compare	UK	United kingdom
Viz.	namely	USA	United States of America
c.	About/approximately	Q.	question
N.B.	note	No.	number
Dept.	department	p./ pp	Page/ pages
Diff.	Difficult/difficulty	Poss.	Possible./ probably
Excl.	excluding	Prob.	Probable/ probably
Imp.	important	Probs.	problems
incl	include	Re.	With reference to
Lang.	language	Ref.	reference
Ltd.	limited	Tho'	though
Max.	maximum	Tro'	through

Table 3.1. Some Common Abbreviations (James, Jordan and Matthews, 1979)

3.5.   The Notebook

Before defining the term notebook, we note that what is meant by notebook in this chapter is the copybook, and not the new technological means of communication or what is called the 'tablet'. The notebook or the copybook is the main recording tool used by students at university. Students on their copybooks may take down information related to lessons or extra information. Even new words can be given by the teacher:

stressed, which means that the teacher focuses on the word and explains it, or just said during the explanation; in this case, students may ask their teachers, ask their peers or check in their dictionaries.

According to McCarthy (1990: 127), *"the vocabulary notebook is probably the most common form of written student record. Small notebooks can be carried round easily added to and studied at any time"*. Marzano (2007) refers to *"academic notebooks"* as *"powerful features"* which can be used during students' critical-input experiences. Ruiz-Primo, Li, and Shavelson (2001, cited in Marzano, 2007: 56) define scientific notebooks as *"a compilation of entries that provide partial records of the instructional experiences a student had in her or his classroom for a certain period of time."* Maxom (2009, 29) discusses notebook saying: *"conscientious students always turn up with a pen and notebook because they want to make their own notes on the course, but they expect any materials you provide to be concise and effective."* Moreover, in the same vein, Maxom (ibid) adds that teachers should promote students' independence by showing them how to take and organize notes in their notebooks, so that they cope with teachers and stop asking about everything that encounters them. Decarrico (2001), in giving the importance of notebooks and how they help in learning vocabulary, says that learners can *"write word pairs and semantic maps which help them visualize the associative network of relationships existing between new familiar words"* (Chudhury, 2010: 314).

The notebook can take many forms like card-index files or Cornell sheets which are downloaded from the internet, in addition to electronic notebooks which are used in some cases. According to Hill and Flynn (2006), students can use three-ring binder, spiral notebooks and note cards. Nation (2005) argues that, in case of vocabulary learning, it is better for students to use word cards than notebooks because word cards

allow students to have the word on one face and the meaning on the other, which the notebook cannot provide.

Conclusion

Note taking or note making as a skill is an effective way to good performance. There are some variables which affect good taking notes like listening comprehension and lecture complexity. Students aiming to take appropriate notes should differentiate between important ideas and use abbreviations in order to gain time while the teacher is giving the lecture. In addition to ideas, students should choose the appropriate method to take notes, as in the Cornell Method.

CHAPTER FOUR

Vocabulary Learning

Introduction

The questionnaire is a means of investigation in research. In the current thesis, we started with the questionnaire in order to put a finger on some points that students of English find problematic in learning vocabulary and other points which have relation with note taking and learning vocabulary, that is to be a basis to the experiment.

4.1. The Sample

The population chosen to take part in the research is Second Year students of English at the Department of Letters and English at the University Des Frères Mentouri of Constantine. The total number of students registered in the Second Year in the academic year 2012/ 2013 is approximately six hundred. The reliable sample in doing a research should cover one tenth of the population, so the sample is fifty students taken to fulfill the research and were selected randomly from the population to answer the questionnaire, first, and to be part of the experiment later on.

4.2. Description of the Students' Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of 24 questions divided into four sections (see Appendix 1).

Section One, Vocabulary Learning/Acquisition (Q1- Q4), seeks information about vocabulary. The importance of these questions lies in the students' views about vocabulary importance in language learning/acquisition.

Section Two, Listening Comprehension (Q5- Q8), is about the listening comprehension and its importance in understanding lectures and students' difficulties while listening.

In Section Three, Note Taking and Abbreviations (Q9- Q23), students are required to answer questions about their note taking system and the methods they use while they

take note. They also have to answer a table which summarizes a group of abbreviations which students are supposed to know.

Section Four, Further Suggestions (Q24), is a free space for students to add other ideas about the current research.

4.3. Analysis of the Results of the Students' Questionnaire

Section One: Vocabulary Learning/Acquisition

Question 01: Do you learn vocabulary on your own?

Yes

No

Options	N (number)	⁒ (percentage)
Yes	42	84
No	08	16
Total	50	100

Table 4.1. Students' Learning Vocabulary
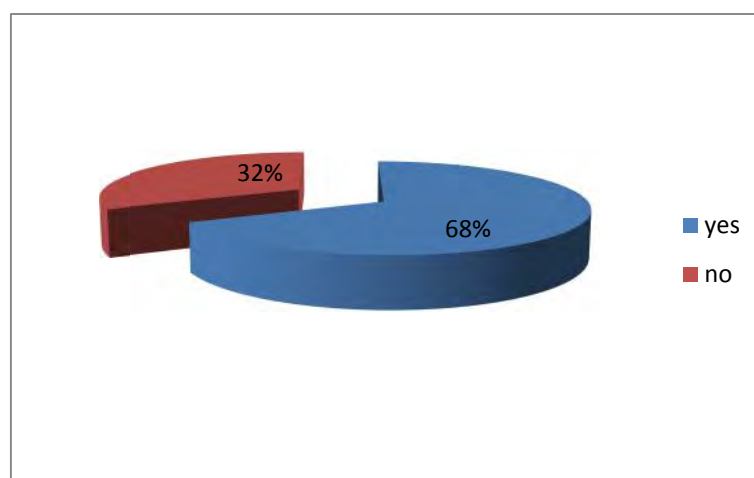
Graph 4.2. Students' Learning Vocabulary

The first question was a general question about learning vocabulary, and as was expected 84 ℅ of students said that they learn vocabulary on their own, which in fact reveals that students know and give importance to learning vocabulary which in turn helps them to improving their language learning. 16 ℅ of students said that they do not learn vocabulary on their own, we consider this as a high percentage.

Question 02: If "Yes", do you use:

a.   A dictionary

b.   Word lists

c.   Other: Please, specify:

Options	N	℅
a	19	38
b	03	06
c	06	12
ab	04	08
ac	06	12
bc	02	04
abc	02	04
No answer	08	16
Total	50	100

Table 4.2. Ways of Learning Vocabulary
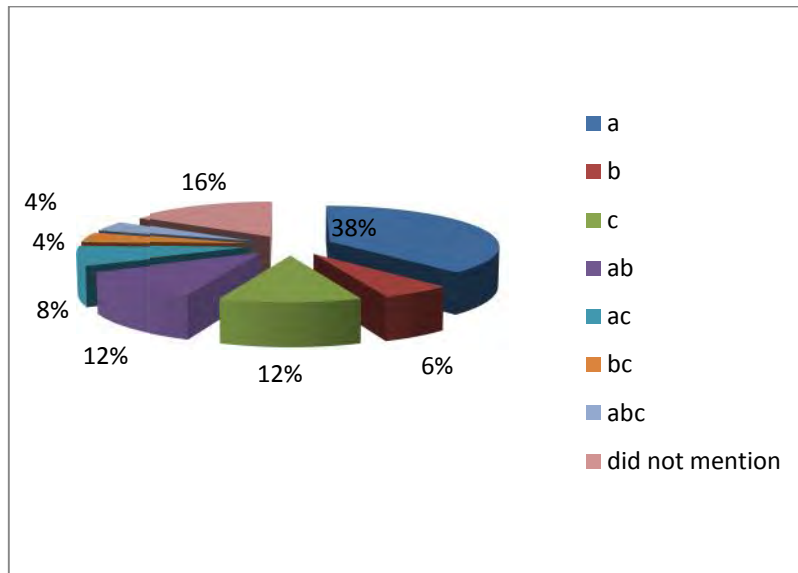
Graph 4.2. Ways of Learning Vocabulary

38 ٪ of the total students answered that they use the dictionary to learn vocabulary. The dictionary is used with other ways that is to say that some students (12٪) answered that they use the dictionary with word lists (b) and 04٪ with b and c (other). The next high percentage is that of those who opted for c (other) i.e. sixteen students. Their answers can be summarised as follows.

- "I listen or watch videos and I read the translation" **(1student)**

- "From newspapers and documentaries" **(1 student)**

- "I use articles from the net" **(2 students)**

- "reading books, short stories and novels" **(3students)**

- "Sometimes I depend on good translation" **(1 student)**

- "Chatting with native speakers" **(2 students)**

- "By reading and listening to English speakers" **(2 students)**

- "Sometimes British and sometimes American movies" **(2students).**

Question 03: During lectures, do you learn vocabulary?

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	48	96
No	02	04
Total	50	100

Table 4.3. Learning Vocabulary in the Classroom
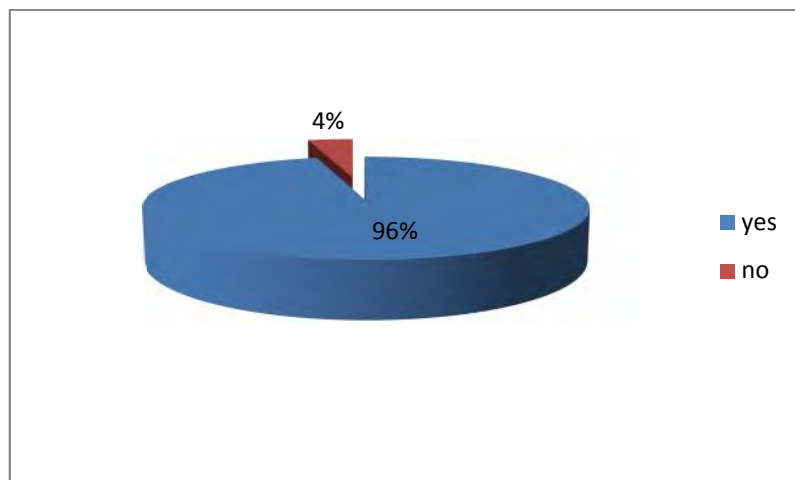
Graph 4.3. Learning Vocabulary in the Classroom

Almost all students, i.e. 96% of students, responded that they learn vocabulary from lectures; this implies that they are interested in lectures and more specifically in vocabulary.

Question 04: If "Yes", do you:

a.   Infer from the context.

b.   Use a dictionary.

c.   Ask the teacher.

d.   Other: Please, specify:

Options	N	%
a	10	20
b	11	22
c	07	14
ab	06	12
ac	02	04
bc	01	02
cd	01	02
abc	09	18
abcd	01	02
Total	48	100

Table 4.4. Ways of Learning Vocabulary in the Classroom
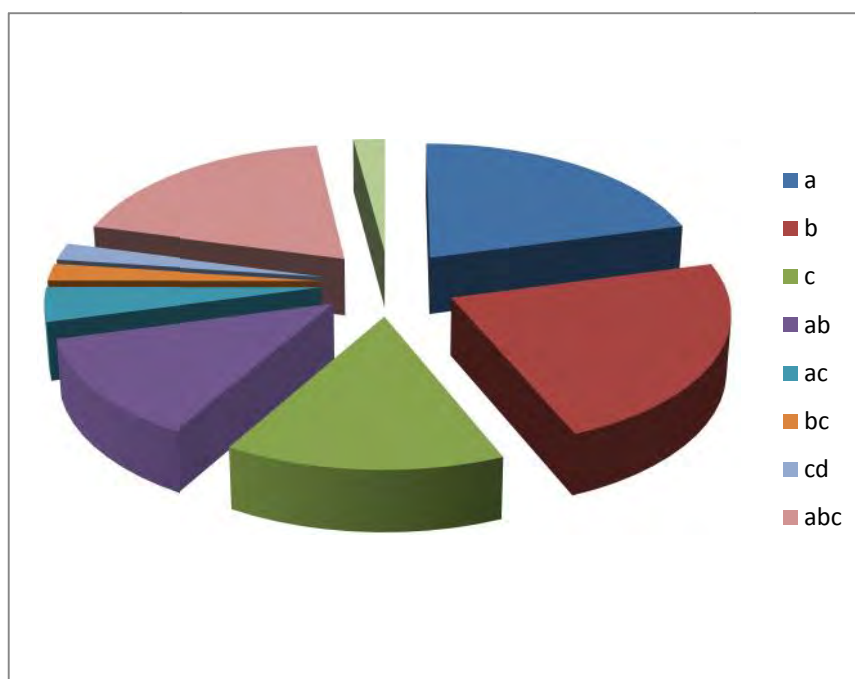
Graph 4.4. Ways of Learning Vocabulary in the Classroom

Less than half of students (22.92٪) answered that they use the dictionary when they encounter an unknown word. 20.83 ٪ of students responded that they infer from context, and 14.58٪ of the correspondents said that they ask the teacher. 18.76 ٪ of the sample responded that they use the three ways that is using the dictionary, inferring from the context and asking the teacher. Finally, 12.5 ٪ of students use the dictionary and

inferring from the context. All in all, we can say that students use multiple ways to learn vocabulary and are interested in that. The other way (or option d) that students said is "sometimes from friend and classmates".

Section Two: Listening Comprehension

Question 05: The listening ability helps you in understanding lectures.

Yes

No

Options	N	٪
Yes	48	96
No	02	04
Total	50	100

Table 4.5. The Listening Ability and Understanding Lectures
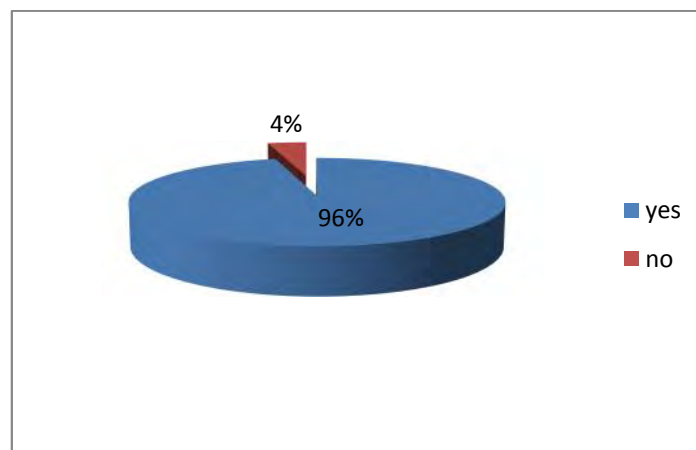
Graph 4.5. The Listening Ability and Understanding Lectures

96٪ of students answered "yes" this question; this implies that they are aware of the importance of the listening ability in understanding lectures.

Question 06: If "Yes", Please explain why.

In this question, the 48 students, who said "yes" to the previous question, gave many answers which are:

- **Student 1:** "because we learn more and memorize better while listening" (**3 students**).

- **Student2:** "it makes it easier for you to follow and don't get lost" (**1 student).**

- **Student 3:** "it makes you willing to catch words and understand" (**24 students).**

- **Student 4**: "Listening ability gives us the opportunity to have a look about the lectures, with it we can also know new vocabulary" (**6 students)**

- **Student 8:** "Listening makes you new terms" (**6students)**

- **Student 9:** "listening helps me correcting my mistakes" (**1 student)**

- **Student 11:** "try to keep words and search their meaning" (**1student)**

- **Student 26:** "listening help you to learn more and more" (**5students)**

- **Student 39:** "because I am auditory" (**1student)**

Question 07: While listening to lectures, do you find difficulties?

Yes

No

Options	N	٪
Yes	33	66
No	17	34
Total	50	100

Table 4.6. Difficulties While Listening
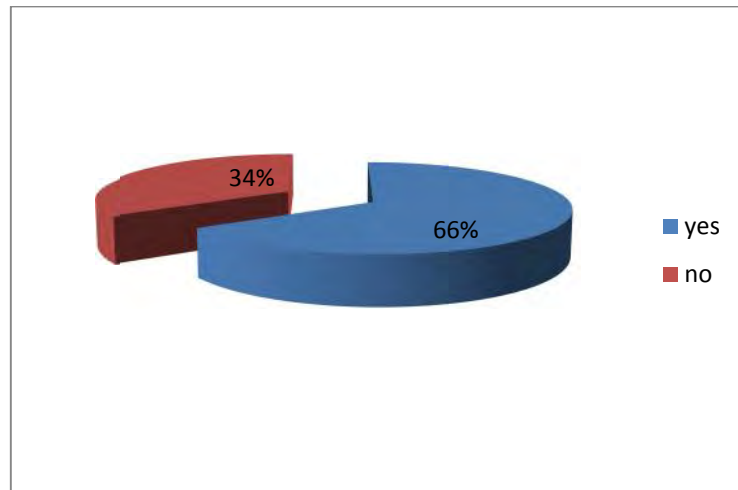
Graph 4.6. Difficulties While Listening

More than half the students (66٪) answered that they face difficulties while listening to lectures. This leads us to understand the difficulties of students in answering some questions asked by teachers. The next question makes us understand what aspects of the language are of difficulty for students.

Question 08: If "Yes", is it:

a.   **Vocabulary**

b.   **Grammar**

c.   **Structure**

d.   **Speed**

e.   **Other: please, specify:**

Options	N	%
a	05	15.15
b	00	00
c	01	03.03
d	09	27.27
ac	01	03.03
ad	13	39.39
bd	01	03.03
de	01	03.03
ade	01	03.03
No answer	01	03.03
Total	33	100

Table 4.7. Difficulties According to Vocabulary, Grammar, Structure, Speed or Other
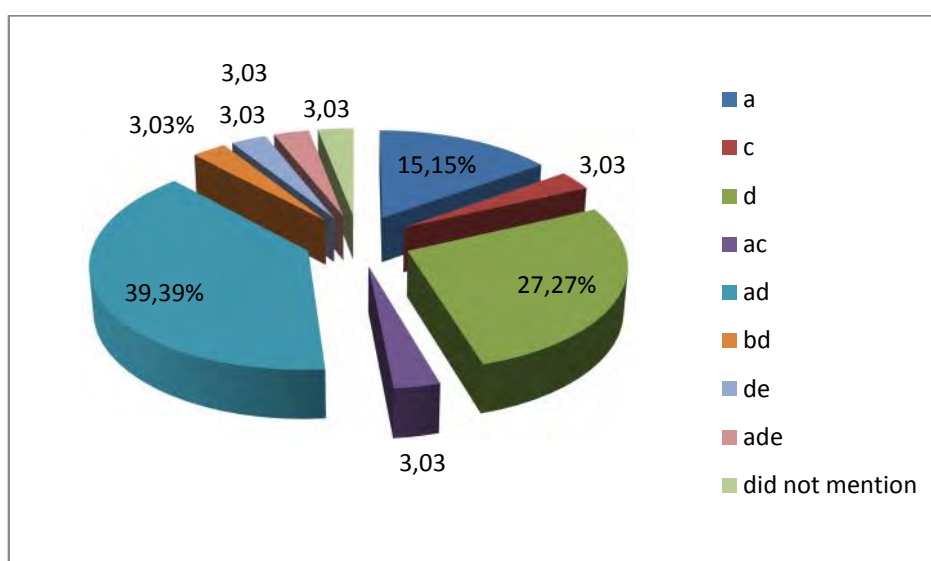
Graph 4.7. Difficulties According to Vocabulary, Grammar, Structure, Speed or Other

Less than half of students (39.39%) answered that their major difficulties lie in vocabulary and speed. Another considerable percentage which is 27.27% of the students

said that their teachers go fast in their speech/explanation which makes it difficult for students since they cannot concentrate if their teachers rash. This implies that students consider that vocabulary used by their teachers is beyond their level and the same thing for the speed, that is to say teachers go fast when they communicate with their students.

Section Three: Note Taking and Abbreviations

Question 09: Do you take notes while your teacher presents the lecture?

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	46	92
No	04	06
Total	50	100

Table 4.8.Taking Notes while Lectures
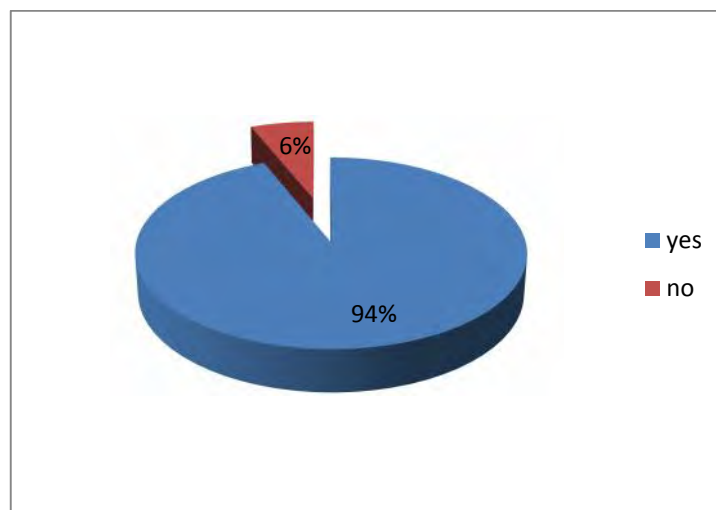
Graph 4.8. Taking Notes While Lectures

Almost all the students (92٪) answered that they take notes when lectures are presented. This shows that students give importance to taking notes.

Question 10: Note taking is:

a.   **Writing what the teacher says.**

b.   **Taking every idea said by the teacher.**

c.   **Writing short phrases using abbreviations and symbols.**

d.   **Other: Please, specify.**

Options	N	％
a	07	15.21
b	05	10.86
c	22	47.83
d	03	06.52
ab	02	04.35
ac	04	08.69
ad	01	02.77
cd	04	08.69
acd	01	02.17
Total	46	100

Table 4.9. Definition of Taking Notes
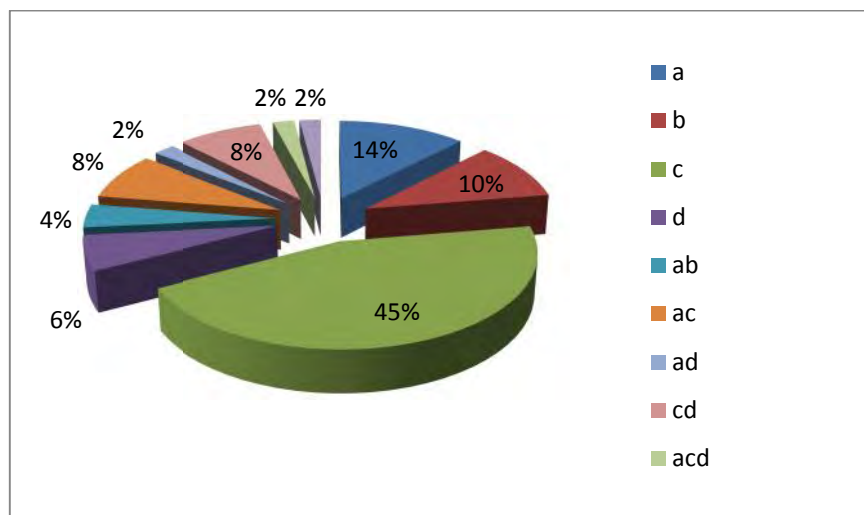
Graph 4.9. Definition of Taking Notes

We required the students to give a definition to note taking, and we found that a little less than the half (44٪) gave the correct answer or option "c". This makes us sure that students are interested to a great extent in note taking.

The other definitions given by students are as coming:

- "Focusing only on the main ideas or taking just the essential ideas" **(4students)**

- "I take notes an rewrite them on my own style" **(1student)**

- "I summarize the idea with short phrases" **(3students)**

- "writing short complete sentences" **(1student)**

Question 11: What type of note taking do you use?

a.　　　　**The Outline Method:** writing each idea on a separate line following the order.

b.　　　　**The Cornell Method:** it divides the paper into three columns; each column contains specific items of the lecture(title, details and cues).

c.　　　　**The Mapping Method:** the main idea comes at the centre of the page and the supporting ideas around it attached with arrows.

d.　　　　**The Paragraph Method:** each idea is written in the form of a paragraph.

e.　　　　**Other: Please, specify:**

Options	N	%
a	29	58
b	00	00
c	01	02
d	06	12
e	02	04
ac	06	12
ad	02	04
ae	01	02
bd	01	02
No answer	02	04
Total	50	100

Table 4.10. Types of Note Taking Students Use
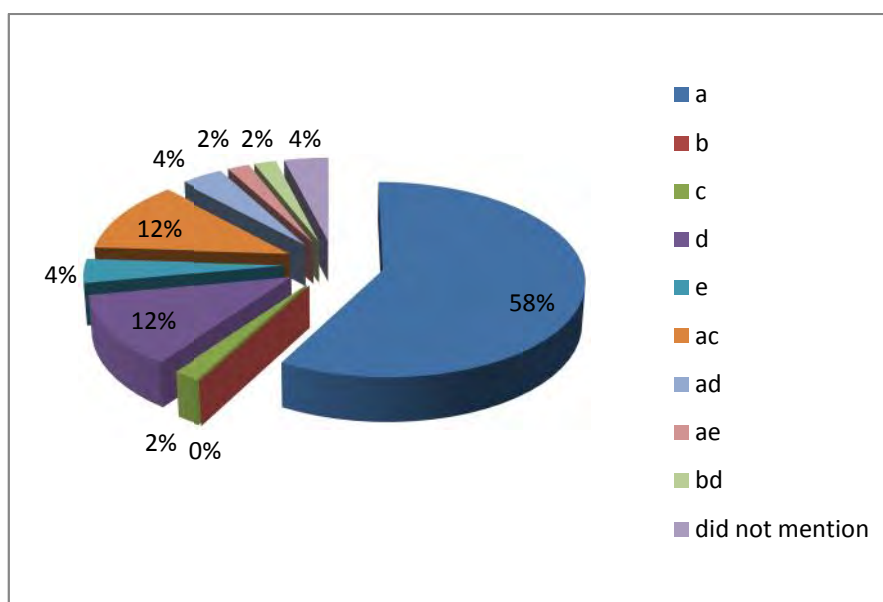
Graph 4.10. Types of Note Taking Students Use

In this question, we tried to shed light on the methods of note taking by giving their definitions and then ask the students which method they use. More than half the students (58%) answered that they use the outline method. This shows that students even if they do not know the names of the methods, which was understood while we asked

this question in the pre-test, they take notes the way they know. Some students answered that they use the paragraph method, and it could be true since students use sentences and phrases in the form of a paragraph when they refer to the same idea of a lecture. Other students responded that they use a combination of two methods like the outline method and the mapping method which is a considerable percentage (12 ٪).

Question 12: Do your teachers ask you to take notes?

Yes

No

Options	N	٪
Yes	46	92
No	04	08
Total	50	100

Table 4.11. Rate of Students' Perception of whether their Teachers ask them to take Notes
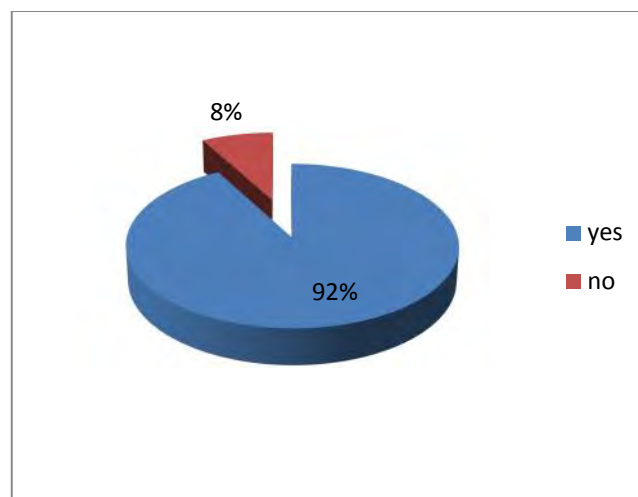
Graph 4.11. Rate of Students' Perception whether their Teacher Ask them to take Notes

As was expected, 92٪ of the informants answered that their teachers ask them to take notes. This implies that teachers, too, give importance to note taking like students.

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Question 13: If "Yes", how often do they ask you to take notes?

a.   **Always**

b.   **Sometimes**

Options	N	%
Always	7	15
Sometimes	41	85
Total	48	100

Table 4.12. Rate of Teachers' Asking Students to Take Notes
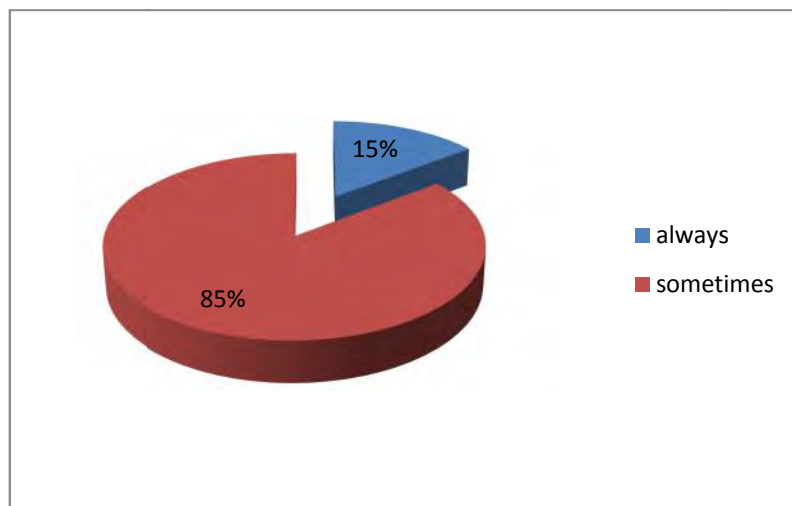
Graph 4.12. Rate of Teachers' Asking Students to Take Notes

More than the half of the sample (85%) answered that their teachers ask them to take notes sometimes. This implies that teachers are not consistent in asking students to take notes and the same thing for students since they wait for their teachers to ask.

Question 14: When you take notes, do you rewrite them at home?

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	18	36
No	31	62
No answer	01	02
Total	50	100

Table 4.13. Rate of Students Rewriting their Notes at Home
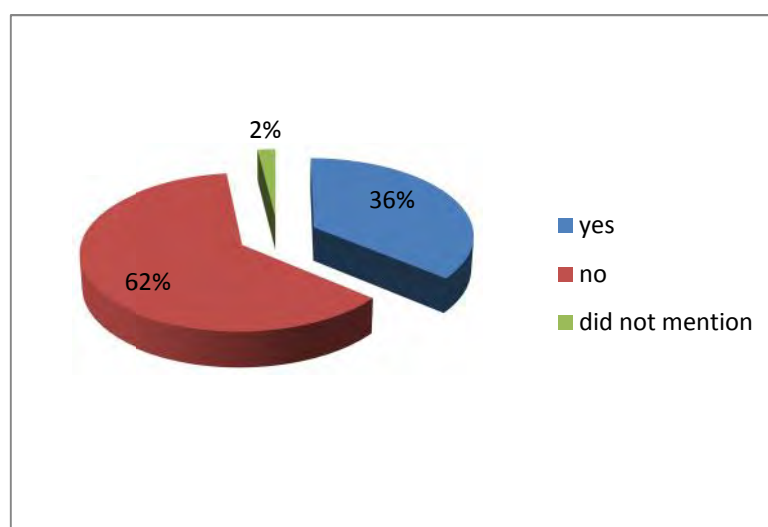
Graph 4.13. Rate of Students' Rewriting their Notes at Home

More than half of the students i.e. 62 ℅ answered "Yes" they rewrite their notes at home; this shows that students revise and take a look at their lessons after classes.

Question 15: Do you think that the notes you take are sufficient?

Yes

No

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Options	N	%
Yes	16	32
No	34	68
Total	50	100

Table 4.14. Rate of Students' Notes Sufficiency
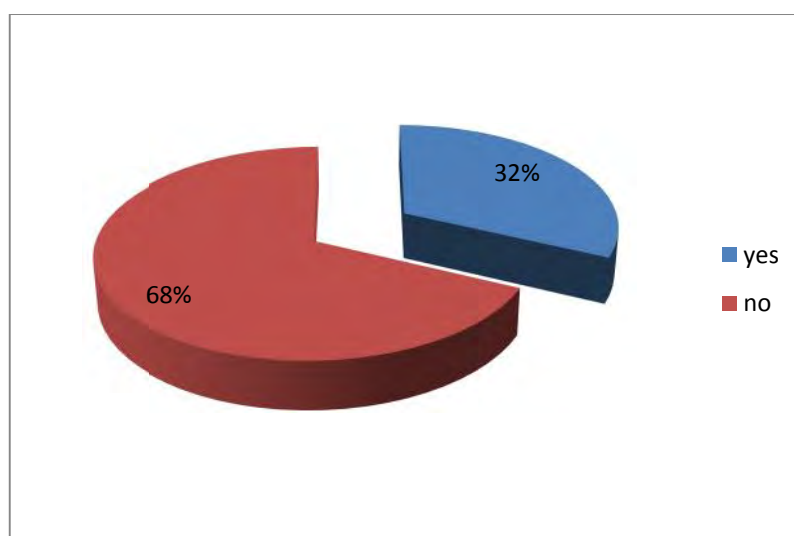
Graph 4.14. Rate of Students' Notes Sufficiency

This question gives importance to students' views towards whether their notes are sufficient. The results showed that 68 ٪ of students think that they are not sufficient. The next question shows why.

Question 16: Please, explain why.

There are four (4) students, among the sixteen, did not answer, whereas the others who answered "yes" justified as follows:

- **Student 01:** "because I take a lot of the teacher's speech"

- **Student 02:** "because the notes I take are part of our comprehension, so when we take it we think it is sufficient"

- **Student 03:** "they help us understand our lecture"

- **Student 04:** "because I take just the specific notes that can help me"

- **Student 05:** "they summarize the lesson, they represent key ideas of the lesson"

- **Student 06:** "yes because I try to understand the lecture then I take the important notes that I feel necessary and I that enough for me"

- **Student 07:** "because I take exactly what the teacher says"

- **Student 08:** "because I take notes only about what is important"

- **Student 09:** "because I get the idea and I can understand"

- **Student 10:** "because I take just the most important ideas"

- **Student 11:** "because I took only the main ideas"

- **Student 12:** "because they are the key elements of the lecture and when I read it I remember the lecture"

Whereas the thirty four (34) students who answered "no", their answers are grouped below according to the similarities of the ideas they have given.

- "I always need a whole document even if I will summarize it by the end" **(2 students)**

- "because we can't take all the ideas said by the teacher so, they are not very sufficient" **(3 students)**

- "sometimes the notes contain only the general idea, so we have to look for more details to understand better" **(14 students)**

- "because I do not hear anything of what the teacher explains" **(4 students)**

- "because I do not take notes" **(1 student)**

- **"**because the lessons need more explanation from the teacher because some items are complex" **(1 student)**

- "because sometimes I cannot catch every information" **(2 students)**

- "teachers usually talk fast and I cannot take everything" **(1 student)**

From the answers above, it is noted that most students (14 students) argued that most lectures need more elaboration from their part, and more than that, they consider that teachers give them just general ideas and they have to look for more details by themselves. There are five (5) students who did not answer.

Question 17: When you take notes, do you use abbreviations?

Yes

No

Options	N	%
Yes	37	74
No	13	26
Total	50	100

Table 4.15. Rate of Students' Use of Abbreviations
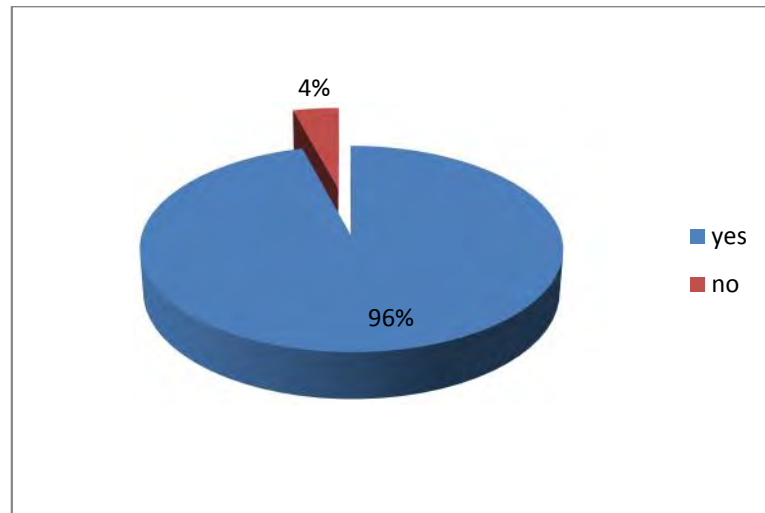
Graph 4.15. Rate of Students' Use of Abbreviations

Almost all students answered this question with "yes" 74%. This shows that students know that taking notes needs the use of abbreviations.

Question 18: If "Yes", is it because:

a.   **Your teacher told you to do it.**

b.   **You decided to do it.**

Options	N	%
a	07	19
b	30	81
Total	37	100

Table 4.16. Students' Perceptions towards Abbreviations
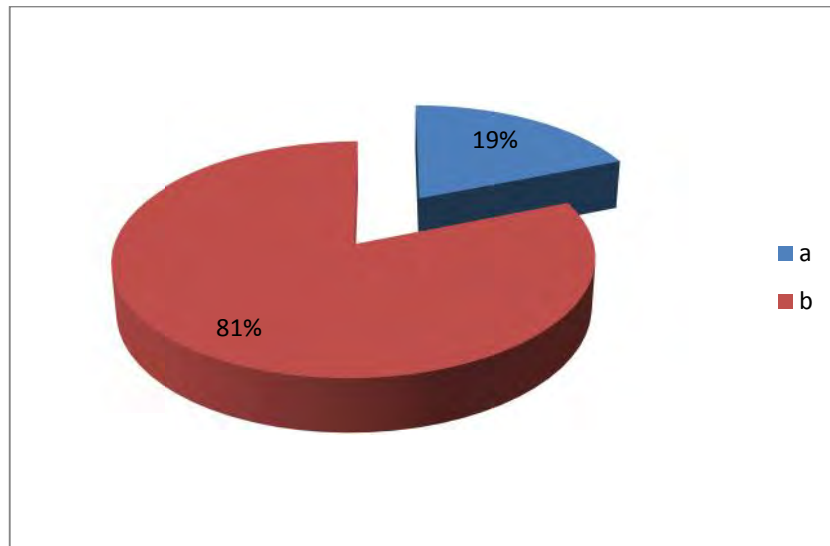
Graph 4.16.Students' Perception towards Abbreviations

Thirty students (81⁒) said that they use abbreviations while taking notes because they decided to do so, and not because their teachers asked them to do that. This reflects that students want to take information from the lecture and in order to take enough information and to gain time, they use abbreviations and symbols.

Question 19: When you use abbreviations, do you:

a.   **Keep the same abbreviation for the same word each time.**

b.   **Forget about the abbreviation.**

c.   **Other: Please, specify:**

Options	N	⁒
a	32	64
b	12	24
No answer	06	12
Total	50	100

Table 4.17. Students' Persistency towards Abbreviations

124
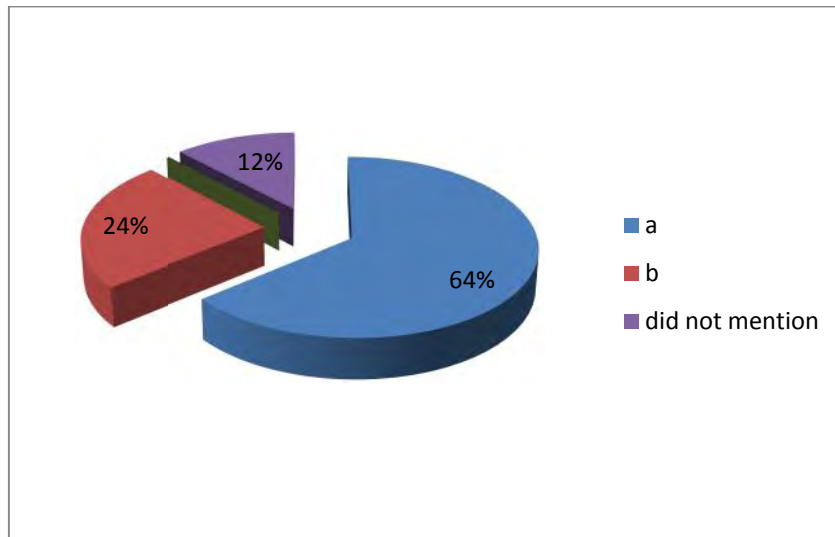
Graph 4.17. Students' Persistency towards Abbreviations

More than half the sample (64٪) answered that they keep the same abbreviation for the word each time they encounter it. This mainly because almost all the ideas given to students are content based that is to say related to lectures. 24 ٪ of students answered that they forget about the abbreviation, this has relation with the words which are not used by students and are given abbreviations to gain time then they forget them.

Question 20: Do you know the meaning of the following abbreviations? If "Yes", please, give the meaning of the following abbreviations.

Options	N	%
#	19	38
@	26	52
%	40	80
B4	35	70
$	40	80
+	45	90
-	39	78
<	33	66
>	32	64
≤	26	52
≥	40	80
=	40	80
≠	42	84
?	44	88
!	42	84
Max.	48	96
Min.	45	90
Ed.	49	98
Info.	48	96
Def.	49	98
♂	47	94
♀	43	86
α	20	40
Vs.	40	80
e.g.	49	98
i.e.	44	88
Etc.	42	84
Bc.	32	64
↓	34	68
↑	34	68
∞	32	64
Intro.	48	96

Table 4.18. Students' Positive Responses towards the Abbreviations and Symbols

Even if the abbreviations are personal, there are some ones which are universal as we saw in the literature survey. We tried to give students the most shared and known abbreviations. Some students (32.25 ℅) gave the abbreviation "bc" a wrong interpretation. The abbreviation means "because", but students answered "Before Christ" which is abbreviated "BC".

From the table above, it is clear that students did not really take into their account the meaning of the "abbreviation", since the majority of students interpret the mathematical symbol like in +, ≠, ≤, ≥, α, <, and >. If we take the abbreviation "+" alone, about 42.72℅ of the total answered with "plus" which is the mathematical symbol but not the abbreviation which can take multiple meanings like add, in addition, more and positive. The latter had a percentage of 9.09℅ of total responses.

The same misinterpretation we can say happened with the abbreviations "?" and "!"; students went directly to the literal meaning of the symbols, that is to say that "?" is a question mark and "!" is an exclamation mark. 43 students gave the answer "question mark" which gives a percentage of 97.73 ℅ and just one student answered with "not understandable" which gives 2.27 ℅ the other six students did not answer.

Five students could answer all the abbreviations regardless their correctness to the researcher, but could have a possible meaning since the abbreviations are to some extent personal. From the first glance, it appears that the abbreviation which scored the highest answers is "Def." and "e.g." with 49 students who answered "definition" and "example" respectively. For the one student who remains, he answered "difference" for "Def." and the other one answered did not answer at all.

Question 21: Please, add other abbreviations and symbols that you are used to use and give their full word.

The following table illustrates all the abbreviations used by the students:

The Abbreviation	The Full Word
Adj.	Adjective
Adv.	Adverb
Prep.	Preposition
Lang.	Language
GR	Grammar
Arti.	Article
St	Structure
B	Bacteria
Pbm	Problem
Snt	Sentence
Bcs	Because
Pre.	Predictor
Auxi.	Auxiliary
α	And
Conc.	Conclusion
δ	Paragraph
[ ]	Limited
[…	Not limited
IR	Industrial revolution
Sth	Something
sb	Somebody

Table 4.19. Students' Use of Abbreviations and Symbols

According to the above table, we can notice that the majority of abbreviations, if not all, are based on grammar. Some others are more specific like in IR which is Industrial Revolution or B which is bacteria as the student mentioned (to justify this answer we just say that the student who gave this abbreviation studied biology).

Question 22: When you decide to revise or rewrite your notes, do you find difficulties in decoding the abbreviations?

Yes

No

Options	N	％
Yes	07	14
No	40	80
No answer	03	06
Total	50	100

Table 4.20. Rate of Students' Difficulties while Decoding their Notes
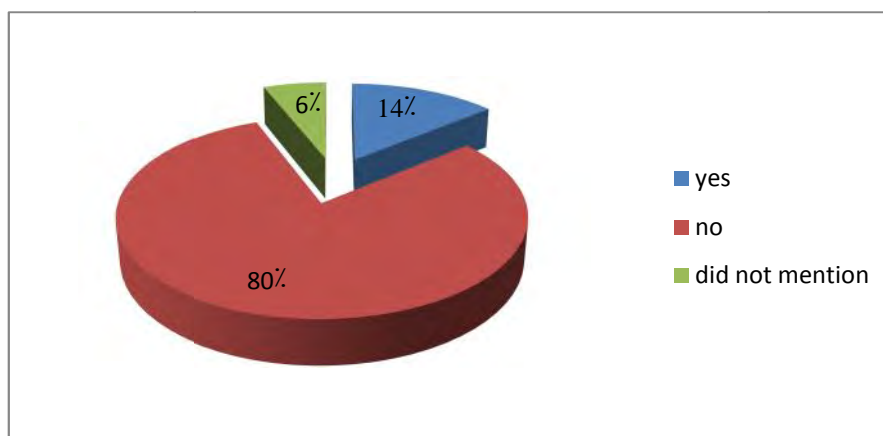
Graph 4.18. Rate of Students' Difficulties while Decoding their Notes

More than the half of the students (80 ％) answered that do not face any difficulties when they revise their notes. The justification which could be given here is that most teachers at this level dictate to students or give printed lectures. This may have a relation with question 19 when we asked the students if they keep the same abbreviation for the same word or not, we find that students do not find difficulties because they

know the abbreviations they use each time; but still there is 14٪ of students who find difficulties when they revise their lessons. The following question may give us more explanation about students' difficulties.

Question 23: If "Yes", please explain why.

The answers suggested by the same students who answered "Yes" to the previous questions are:

- "Because sometimes I do forget totally the meaning especially if I have invented the abbreviation" **(1 student)**

- "because I find difficulties in decoding them" **(2 students)**

- "because we must learn most and after we must write it" **(1 student)**

- "because sometimes we are confused" **(1 student)**

- "I forget about it" **(2 students)**

Section Four: Further Suggestions

Question 24: Please, add any further comment or suggestion.

   Seven students gave suggestions about the topic, which are as follows.

- "I don't use notes very often because I find difficulties in understanding them later" (1student)

- "I think the previous questions are useful because they give us the opportunity to evaluate our ways of learning in class and also the teacher's methods" (1student)

- "we have to make connections between OE and WE" (1student)

- "it makes us confused between the real word and its abbreviation" (1student)

- "writing abbreviations is the best part of taking notes" (1student)

- "abbreviations are good in taking notes, but they make me confuse between the real word and its abbreviation" (1student)

- "following what the teacher says, for example, Oral Expression has relation with Written Expression" (1student)

4.4.   Overall Analysis

From the results obtained in the analysis of the students' answers, we can deduce the following results.

First of all, students' best way to learn new words, on their own, is dictionaries; they said that during lectures, they use dictionaries when they encounter a new word. So according to students, dictionaries are the best way to learn vocabulary.

Second, students agreed that the listening ability is a major element in understanding lectures. More precisely, students said that the main difficulties they face when listening to teachers are vocabulary and speed. Teachers seem to use difficult words when explaining lessons or when communicating with students, and on the other hand, students see that teachers are faster than their level, which makes them not understand lectures.

Third, concerning note taking, students answered that they take notes without waiting for their teachers to tell them to do so. Moreover, students' best and suitable way of taking notes is the Outline Method, that is to say to take each idea of the lesson in a line, which is much easier than the others. Students, also, agreed that their teachers ask them, sometimes, to take notes.

Fourth, concerning rewriting notes at home, the majority of students do not rewrite notes at home but keep their notes as they are. On other hand, students answered that the notes taken are understood even if they use abbreviations and symbols and that does not

confuse them. Concerning abbreviations and symbols, students said they use them, and when revising, they do not find any difficulty concerning the meaning of the short forms.

On the whole, even if the students do not find any difficulties while taking notes and there are no difficulties while decoding the notes, students prefer to have teachers' notes or dictation, as they argue "it helps us in examinations".

Conclusion

The Students' Questionnaire has shown that students believe that vocabulary plays an important role in listening comprehension and thus in understanding lectures. From the questionnaire, we noticed that students do not revise their lectures after classes, and this leads to difficulties in the future, especially in exams. We can summarize the difficulties mostly in vocabulary and speed; the former is at the core of the present research.

CHAPTER FIVE

Note Taking

Introduction

It is worth noting that the combination among the three variables vocabulary, listening and note taking is rarely found. Note taking is considered very important in the students' learning process. Listening comprehension plays, also, a vital role in the accuracy of taking notes, without neglecting the use of vocabulary in both note taking and essay writing.

5.1. The Sample

To fulfil the experiment, the same students who answered the questionnaire (50) are those who took part in the treatment of the experiment. The sample was divided into two groups, the Control group and the Experimental group of twenty-five students each. Both groups are Second Year students at the Department of Letters and English at the University Des Frères Mentouri Constantine. The students had previous sessions about how to write an essay and other sessions about the different types of essays. At the beginning of the experiment, the students of the two groups were told that they are part of an experiment, and they had the first session in oral expression where they listened to a text about causes and effects of obesity. In the second session, they wrote an essay about the same topic based on the notes they took in the oral expression session. The students also were not told to take the vocabulary written on the board, but they were explained.

5.2. Description of the Experiment

In the current research, students of the two groups are supposed to do the work in two steps. In the first step, they listen to a text read by the teacher, and while listening, they take notes of the information they think they are important. The teacher uses some verbal clues which enrich the text and non verbal clues like loud voice and stress so that

to help students figure out the important ideas. In this case, students are supposed to use abbreviations and symbols. In the second step, after the teacher finishes reading, the students are given some words which are suitable to their level and are written on the board. Students, here, are asked to take them down on their copybooks. Then, the teacher explains the words for those students who do not know their meanings. At last, students use the notes taken and the words to write an essay based on the type of essay they think is suitable to the information given.

5.3.   Analysis of the Students' Pre-test for both the Control and Experimental Group

Students' performances were analyzed according to the use of taking notes while listening, the method used while taking notes, students use of abbreviations and symbols while listening and the ideas used from notes while producing their written essays.

5.3.1.   Students' Use of Taking Notes

Options	Control group		Experimental group	
	N	٪	N	٪
Took notes	24	96	22	88
Did not take notes	01	04	03	12
Total	25	100	25	100

Table 5.1. Amount of Students' Note Taking

According to Table 5.1. in the Control group, only one student (4٪) did not take notes and the rest (96٪) took notes. Whereas in the Experimental group, twenty two

students took notes (88℅), and three students (12℅) did not take notes. The students who

did not take notes in both the Control and Experimental argued that:

- I cannot focus on both listening and writing,

- I am used just to listen,

- I focus more on listening because I am "auditory" learner; and

- I cannot find what I write.

5.3.2. Vocabulary Use While Taking Notes

Options	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	N	℅	N	℅
Sweeteners	06	24	00	00
Sugary	05	20	08	32
Counterparts	05	20	06	24
Miscarriage (abortion)	10	40	07	28
Offspring	09	36	08	32

Table 5.2. Vocabulary Use While Note Taking

As it is noticed in the table above, students in the Control Group performed slightly

better than the Experimental Group. It is noticed that the word "sweeteners" was not

written or taken down by none of the Experimental Group students.

5.3.3. Method of Note-Taking Used by Students

Type of Note Taking	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	N	٪.	N	٪.
The Outline Method	24	96	22	88
No Notes Taken	01	04	03	12
Total	25	100	25	100

Table 5.3. Method of taking notes Used by Students

As table 5.2 shows, almost all students, in both the Control and the Experimental groups, used the Outline Method (that is to say, students write down each idea in a line using dashes or dots before each idea). The reason which can justify this is that this method is the simplest and the most practical method, which makes students take all what they listen without focusing on the method they use. Another reason may lie on the education system which does not give deep focus to note taking and does not put students in direct practice with other modules but the practice keeps related to the module taught. This may lead the students not to really grasp the importance of taking notes.

For the students who did not take notes, they did not take notes because they do not like to take notes.

5.3.4. Degree of Students' Notes Accuracy

Options	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	N	%	N	%
Definition of obesity	14	56	14	56
Cause 1	12	48	14	56
Research	09	36	04	16
Cause 2	00	00	00	00
Result of the cause	00	00	00	00
Effect 1	00	00	00	00
Illness (diabetes)	07	28	11	44
Effect (women)	07	28	07	28
Effect (men)	06	24	04	16
Effect (other diseases)	08	32	08	32
Effect 3 (mental illness)	06	24	07	28
Vocabulary given	19	76	10	40

Table 5.4. Analyzing Students' Listening Comprehension

In the text (obesity), there are eleven (11) signals ranging from *verbal* words like "defined as", "for example", "the root causes", "another cause" (since the text deals with causes) and "dates" of some researches done on obesity, to *non-verbal* signals like stress on some words like "increased risk", "heart, kidneys, and arteries" and "mental health" including reading them loudly.

According to students' assignments, there are some similarities and differences between the Control and the Experimental groups as the table above shows. Concerning the similarities, both in the Control and the Experimental groups, fourteen students could take down the definition of the obesity and it should be noted that in both groups no student used abbreviations or symbols, but all students wrote exactly what the teacher read even though she did say at the beginning of the experiment that students had to take notes and that the teacher was not dictating.

Concerning cause 1, students in the Experimental group responded more than the Control group with 14 students which is more than half? but it stays not enough if we consider the signal used was very common to students which is "the root causes of obesity" since the word "root" means "major".

The analysis of the next cause is the analysis of two elements: students' attention and awareness. The research as mentioned in the table 5.3. is related to the cause before it in the text(that is to say, eating sugar and sweeteners). All students did not take down the cause of calorie-burning but they mentioned the research. The research in the text is about a survey done on children who spent six hours as an average per day watching television or playing video games. Nine (9) students in the Control group took down the information about the research, but none of them mentioned linked it to what is before. Similarly in the Experimental group, just four students took the whole

information about the research, and there are six other students who took down just the year (2005).

The three next items of analysis scored zero (00) even if they hold verbal signals like "another cause" and "as a result" and a non-verbal signal in the sentence "generally, obese persons have a shorter life expectancy" where the teacher used stress and speaking loudly to catch students' attention, even "generally" could be considered as a verbal signal.

The next item of analysis is the effect "diabetes", both groups, the Experimental group and the Control group scored below the average even though the Experimental group scored more than the Control group, but it is insufficient because the information is given in a rich context of clues like "for example" which means that the information before it is important, the example is given to explain the idea.

The next item scored below the average for both groups (7 students in each group), although this information is divided into two sub-ideas which are related to women; the first sub-idea is that women could be infertile, and the second sub-idea is that obese women have more risks to get miscarriage. Even though these two sub-ideas are too important in a subject like "obesity" but students scored less than expected.

In the same vein, the next idea is related to "fertility" but in relation to men, but as before, students did not pay attention. Both groups scored less than expected, and more than that, the scores were below the idea before it i.e. the idea related to 'fertility of women'. The idea related to men's fertility was given is a verbal clue which is 'also' to give it relevance to the previous idea of women.

Then comes a series of diseases related to obesity. Students scored below the average with eight (8 students) in each group. Even the notes taken by students did not reveal that there are many diseases cited, but all of them took down just "heart disease".

The coming idea is the effect of "mental health"; the students in the Control group gave seven (7) answers, whereas the Experimental group scored six (6).

The next item is related to vocabulary which is one of the major focuses in this research, and even though the students are asked to take down the words which were written on the board, they did not write them. Nineteen (19) students in the Control group wrote down the words given which is more than half and is better than the Experimental group which scored just ten (10) students considering that the words written on the their copies are not all the words.

5.3.5. Use of Abbreviations and Symbols

Options	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	N	٪	N	٪
{	01	04	00	00
→	10	40	09	36
=	12	48	04	16
:	01	04	00	00
●	03	12	01	04
*	02	08	02	08
+	01	04	01	04
-	07	28	12	48
…	01	04	00	00
≠	00	00	01	04
Mother tongue	05	25	02	08
//	00	00	01	04
ob	00	00	01	04

Table 5.5. The Major Abbreviations and Symbols Used by Students

The table 5.4. shows that the majority of students if not all did not use abbreviations unless one student (04٪) in the Experimental group who used the abbreviation "ob" for the word "obesity": the student took good notes and his copy shows proficiency even though the student is not at a "good" level in his studies.

To analyze students' assignments, it really appears that note taking is a personal matter in the sense that many students use different symbols to mean one thing. For example, the symbol (**.**) was used by a student in order to start a new idea in each line, whereas another student used the star (*) in each idea, and another student refers to it by the symbol (+). Many students used the abbreviation (=) to refer to synonyms, but one student refers to synonyms using the symbol (⟹).

5.3.6. Amount of Vocabulary Used by Students in the Essay

Options	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	N	%	N	%
Sweeteners	08	32	05	20
Sugary	10	40	08	32
Counterparts	00	00	00	00
Miscarriage (abortion)	06	24	06	24
Offspring	06	24	06	24

Table 5.6. Vocabulary Use in Students' Essays

In the table above, it is shown to what extent students use the vocabulary they face the first time. The lowest score is shown in the word "counterpart"; the word which means the other part was not used by any student in the Control group. The first note that could be done is that students did not use the strategy of "risk taking" since they do not know the word.

The highest used word is "sugary" which means too sweet; the reason why students used the word may be because the word is taken from the word "sugar" which is very common to students.

In the second place is the word "sweeteners"; we found that eight (8) students used it. We may give the same justification as the word above; the word sweeteners is taken or derived from the word "sweet" which is well known to students.

In the third place, we find the words "miscarriage" and "offspring". Both words were used by six (6) students. Students at first did not know the word "miscarriage" but when

they were given the word "abortion", which is its synonym, they knew it. The word "offspring" was a problematic word since students did not have any clue about the meaning of the word even if it was put in a meaningful sentence.

As the Control group, the answers in the Experimental group differ from one student to the other. What is remarkable in the Experimental group is that twelve students (48٪) did not use any of the vocabulary given in the oral expression session. What is noticed, too, is that most students used another outline for their essays and did not use the notes given in the oral expression.

The word "sugary" was the highest used word by eight (8) students and the same reason could be given here like in the Control group, since the word sugary is taken from the word sugar which is learnt by students in early stages of English.

The vocabulary which was secondly used is "miscarriage" and "offspring" with 24٪ of total answers. Although the word offspring was not known by students, they used it because they could not have a synonym or a substitution to it.

The next word which was shared between the Control group and the Experimental group is the word "counterpart" which was not used by any student. This word was given using many strategies like it was put in a meaningful sentence and it was given in an example, but it could not be recognized by students until its equivalent in the mother tongue was given.

The large percentage of students (ten students) did not use the group of words. The reason behind this is that students answered a question was given to them "how much have you used the information given to you?"

5.4.   Analysis of Lesson 00 (See Appendix II)

The lesson was called Lesson 00 (see Appendix 02) because it is done just to fulfill the research requirements and it does not belong to any of the modules programmed for second year university students of English. The lesson is divided into four elements: definition, methods, abbreviations and symbols, and activities.

The definition was an initiation for the students to bring them to the lecture theme, whereas the main focus of the lecture and the whole research is the types and abbreviations and symbols.

Students, in general, could guess or at least have an idea of each type of taking notes, taking into consideration that they have seen them in first year classes in the module of Study Skills, so the types Outline Method and Mapping Method were not problematic for students since their names refer to them. With some explanations and examples on the board, students got the principle of both types especially that the first type relies on numeration and ideas under each other respecting the order and importance of ideas (main idea or sub-idea).

The third type or the Cornell method was the newest type for students. In the Cornell method, students need to divide their copybooks into three columns (as shown in appendix), or to download ready copies from the net. In the Cornell method, lesson details and titles related to the lesson are written on separate columns so students can get organized lessons' information. The main problem with this type of note taking is the need to prepare before any lesson which means that students need to have all the time copies downloaded or prepared in advance.

Another issue which is related to taking notes is abbreviations and symbols. In the lesson, we focused on the most used and frequent abbreviations and symbols, so the

total is thirty-two abbreviations and symbols. Some of them are very familiar to students because of the use of the net, some are very ambiguous to them, and some others have different interpretations by students. The other issue which has relation to abbreviations is that abbreviations are context based, that is to say, each topic discussed could have its own abbreviations; for example, the topic obesity could have different abbreviations like "ob" for obesity since it is used many times and it is the key word of the discussion.

The table 5.3.4 on page 140 in this chapter and question 20 of the questionnaire show details about which abbreviations and symbols students know and use in their learning.

5.5. Analysis of the Post-test for the Experimental Group

From these different texts, we tried to shed some light on different vocabularies from medicine: Seasonal Affective Disorder (SAD); society: Our Daily Tutor, and commerce: Two Companies, Puma and Adidas. The way these texts have been analyzed is as follows. Students listened to the texts, then they had to take notes according to what they thought was important (students listening comprehension) depending on the appropriate method to them (type of method used). The researcher after reading the text, she focused on a group of words and explained them (vocabulary used while taking notes). In rewriting the notes, students were free to use or not to use the words given, which is in the heart of the research (vocabulary use while rewriting the notes).

5.5.1. Type Of The Method Used

- Seasonal Affective Disorder (SAD)

The text is about SAD which is an acronym for Seasonal Affective Disorder which is an illness that some people in some countries in the world like the Scandinavian countries who get "sad" because of the decrease of the sun light they are exposed to.

The structure of the text is simple since it discusses a scientific illness with some terms to emphasize the meaning.

The text aims at making students good listeners by focusing on the main verbal clues in the text with the teacher's loud voice and stress on the information given.

Options	N	%
Outline Method	20	80
Paragraph Method	03	12
No Notes Taken	02	08
Total	25	100

Table 5.7.Use of Method in Post-test "SAD"

According to the table above and compared with the pre-test, it is noticed that more than half of the students used the Outline Method since it is the simplest and most direct than the others. Three students used the Paragraph Method; these students did not follow the method's principles exactly since in the lesson it was not explained as the three other methods (Outline, Mapping and Cornell methods. So what was noticed for the students who used the Paragraph Method was one block, where they wrote all the information: one idea after the other, which we can call improvising.

- **Our Daily Tutor**

The text, originally, is an essay taken from, but we adapted it and eliminated the introduction and the conclusion since the introduction of a written piece is replaced by the warm-up in the lesson. The first reaction that students made after the title of the text was written on the board: they thought of life or a person that impressed them. After many tries by students, the researcher gave the correct answer which is the newspaper.

The students were shocked positively since "it was out of their thinking" as they responded.

The text is full of examples which makes it a good example for students to practise the type of essays they are studying that is cause-effect essay, and at the same time, it is an opportunity to students to see that this type of essays could discuss only causes, only effects or both.

The aim of the text is to make students try one method of taking notes which is suitable in all cases which is the outline method.

Options	N	%
Outline Method	25	100

Table 5.08. Method Used by Students in the text Our Daily Tutor

All students used the Outline Method. This proved that the easiest and simplest way or method that they can use and master is the Outline Method since it is direct and does not need any designs or graphics.

- Two Web Sites: Hills Cycles and Wheels Unlimited

In fact it is a dialogue between a teacher and two students who are doing a comparison between two websites companies. The aim of giving it was in a tape since it is the only way that allows us to connect students of English of our department with native speakers. As a matter of fact, students encountered many difficulties at interpreting what the speakers were saying, which lead us to repeat the dialogue several times.

The difficulty lies at the natural speech of native speakers, which leads us to say that our students are very poor at interpreting while listening to native speakers.

Options	N	٪
Outline method	19	76
Paragraph method	03	12
No notes taken	03	12
Total	25	100

Table 5.09. Method of Note-Taking Used by Students in Two Web Sites

According to the results shown at the table above, it is noticed that at this type, too, students chose to use the Outline Method since it is the simplest and easiest method among the others. While other students preferred to use the Paragraph Method, that is to say their notes in the form of blocks; according to each idea, students use one block. Other students did not use any notes, but what is noticed is that they used the vocabulary given and the ideas, too.

- PUMA

Two texts are given to students separately to test students' awareness, how they are going to analyse texts and which information is going to put in their final paper given to the teacher. Both texts are bibliography of the two founders of PUMA and Adidas who are brothers. The text PUMA is a kind of narration of the history or the company PUMA. It is full of interesting dates that the company went through since its creation: some years were very full of success and others were totally the opposite.

Since the aim of the research is to investigate students' listening comprehension, the students listened to two texts: one about PUMA and the other about ADIDAS and then

students had to compare and contrast both companies which is the opposite of the test before.

Options	N	%
Outline Method	21	84
No Notes Taken	04	16
Total	25	100

Table 5. 10. Method Used While Taking Notes in the Text PUMA

The table above shows that students, again, use the Outline Method with 84 percent, that guaranties that the Outline Method is the mostly used because of its simplicity.

- **ADIDAS Saloman**

As the text of PUMA, students listened to the transcript ADIDAS which is, too, full of dates. Students listened to the different stages of the company's development.

The aim of both texts is to see which vocabulary students are going to focus on.

Options	N	%
Outline method	21	84
No notes taken	04	16

Table 5.11. Method Used While Taking Notes in the Text ADIDAS

As the table above shows, twenty-one students (84%) used the Outline Method while they take notes.

5.5.2. Vocabulary Use while Taking Notes

- **Seasonal Affective Disorder (SAD)**

The words given are used without any difficulty since they are at their level. Their meanings are as follows.

Ensuing= following immediately

Natural clock= normal cycle of sleep and wakefulness

Lethargy= inactivity, tiredness

Irritability= anger

Remedy= cure

Options	N	٪
Ensuing	16	64
Natural clock	13	52
Lethargy	22	88
Irritability	15	60
Remedy	11	44

Table 5.12. Students' Use of Vocabulary while Note-Taking in the Text SAD

Lethargy is the word which had the highest score (22 students) even if it was not known by any of the students. The least taken down word was remedy which was written by 11 students.

In each of the words suggested by the researcher, almost half of the students took down the words, this shows that students are interested in acquiring new words and also in writing what is on the board, because the words given are written on the board with their meanings.

- **Our Daily Tutor**

Options	N	%
Erupt	19	76
Hatreds	17	68
Chorus	14	56
Abreast	16	64
Outstanding	14	56

Table 5.13. Amount of Vocabulary Used while note-taking in Our Daily Tutor

According to the table above, there is another high score achieved by students compared with the test before. It means according to all the vocabulary, more than the half of students wrote the vocabulary, at the same time, the role of the board as a visual aid and a tool to reinforce understanding. Except four (4) students, the rest of the group wrote the words with their meanings on their copies.

- **Two Web Sites: Hill Cycles And Wheels Unlimited**

Options	N	%
Helmet	22	88
Facility	22	88
Conventional	22	88
Send off	21	84

Table 5.14. Use of Vocabulary at Note-Taking in Two Web Sites

From the above table, it is analyzed that all students who used both methods have taken the vocabulary given with their synonyms.

- **PUMA**

Options	N	%
Stripes	16	64
Core	10	40
Endorsed	13	52
CEO	20	80

Table 5.15. Students' Use of Vocabulary while Note Taking in PUMA

The word "CEO" is used mostly among the other words. The reason behind this could be that it is a new word for students and if it is not, students could have the meaning of the single letters.

- **ADIDAS Saloman**

Options	N	%
Pitch	07	28
Trinomic	18	72
Subsidiary	14	56
Snap up	12	48

Table 5.16. Use of Vocabulary while Note Taking in ADIDAS

As the table above shows, eighteen students took the word "trinomic" which makes a percentage of 72%.

5.5.3. Use of Vocabulary while Writing Essays

- **Seasonal Affective Disorder (SAD)**

Options	N	％
Ensuing	03	12
Natural clock	03	12
Lethargy	06	24
Irritability	04	16
Remedy	00	00

Table 5.17. Students' Use of Vocabulary while Writing Essays in SAD

According to the table above and the previous table which analyses the same item (see Table 07 page 146), it is noticed that there is a big difference between the two results. The term lethargy which scored the highest while taking notes was used only by six students, and the term remedy which was used by eleven students was not use at all while rewriting the notes. The difference in results when using words while taking notes and while rewriting them could be justified according to the misuse of words given in relation to ideas or structure of sentences, the point which is noticed in students' copies.

- **Our Daily Tutor**

Options	N	％
Erupt	01	04
Hatred	00	00
Chorus	01	04
Abreast	01	04
Outstanding	00	00

Table 5.18. Vocabulary Use in Students' Essays in Our Daily Tutor

For the second time, students did not use the vocabulary given, and more than that, students wrote another version for the topic.

The text is written by an American native speaker of English. The examples given by the writer are culture specific and from students' results they seem to be of no interest to foreign language students. So, interest of texts or topic may influence students' performances.

- **Two Web Sites: Hills Cycles And Wheels Unlimited**

Options	N	%
Helmet	20	80
Facility	20	80
Conventional	19	76
Send off	18	72

Table 5.19. The Use of Vocabulary in Essays in Two Web Sites

According to this table, the majority of students used the vocabulary given. The reason behind this could be that there are no other words which can replace the vocabulary given. The other reason lies at students' preference to use those words and not eliminate them.

To compare these results with previous results, it could be noticed that there is an improvement at students' performances, that is to say from 3 as a total performance at essay writing to 77 as total at this practice, we can say that students' tried to practise what they learned.

- **PUMA/ ADIDAS Saloman**

Options	N	%
Stripes	10	40
Core	11	44
Endorsed	07	28
CEO	20	80
Pitch	02	08
Tournament	01	04
Trinomic	07	28
Subsidiary	07	28
Snap up	04	16

Table 5.20. Use of Vocabulary while Writing Essays in both PUMA and ADIDAS

Since the essay written by students is a comparison-contrast essay, students are going to use both notes taken from both listening to the texts: PUMA and ADIDAS. Consequently, the vocabulary used in the essays is supposed to be eight (8) instead of four (4) like the previous listening. Students most used word was "CEO" with a percentage of 80%, students used the word because of its importance in the history of both companies.

5.5.4. Students' Listening Comprehension

- Seasonal affective disorder (SAD)

Options	N	%
Introductory sentence	13	52
SAD (Seasonal Affective Disorder)	12	48
Causes	15	60
Signs of depression (effects)	21	84
Solution	12	48
Conclusion (suicide)	11	44

Table 5.21. Students' Listening Comprehension in SAD

The text "SAD" is a definition of an illness which is Seasonal Affective Disorder. All the ideas in the text are of equal importance; however, there are some signals used by the writer.

The first sentence of the text is a good warm-up to students since it gives them the theme of the text and the relation among the variables of the illness (winter- decrease in sunlight-sadness-suicide). Verbal language is not the only way to emphasize ideas of the text, but information is transmitted too through loudness, stress and slowness. These elements are each time emphasized by the teacher by stressing some ideas or repeating information so that students can take notes and even the teacher asks the students to write the idea down.

- **Our Daily Tutor**

Options	N	%
Better citizens	17	68
International news	08	32
Nuclear weapons	10	40
Weapons	10	40
National news	08	32
Washington/ congress	04	08
Elections	10	40
Local news	20	80
Background information	13	52
Maps	05	20
El Niño	14	56
Congress	00	00
New scientific development	00	00
Vivid connection	14	56
Civic meetings	01	04
Our town and our neighbours	12	48
Keep abreast of activities	01	04
Read letters to the editor	00	00
Title	16	64
Each idea in a line	14	56

Table 5.22. Analysis of Students Listening Comprehension in Our Daily Tutor

If we take a look at the text, we notice that it is divided into three developmental paragraphs which include the following topic sentences respectively: "Reading the daily news makes us better citizens by informing us about what is happening at the world around us." "Almost as important as the news is the background information the newspaper supplies in order to give the news an understandable context." and "Most importantly, the newspaper offers us vivid connection to our community." Students responded to these main ideas as follows: 17, 13 and 14 students respectively which means for the three main ideas of the text, more than half of the students wrote down the information. For the sub ideas of the text, it is noticed that students did not pay attention to the clues given, that is to say, the sub ideas related to the first main idea are given using verbal clues like: "first", "second" and "last but not least". The results are as follows, 08, 08 and 20 students respectively.

For the second main idea, half the students (13) took the information on their copybooks, whereas the related sub-ideas of the same idea just 05, 14, 00 and 00 students for the sub ideas respectively. Although the last two sub ideas were reinforced with verbal clues like "at addition" and "also", students did not pay attention to that, and no one took the related information.

The third main idea contains four sub-ideas which are delivered using verbal clues, in addition to the researcher's loud voice and stress. These clues are "by reading the paper", "moreover", and other information which is transmitted using loud voice and stress only.

- **Two Web Sites: Hills Cycles and Wheels Unlimited**

Options	N	％
Title	07	28
More pages	13	52
Separate page	14	56
History of the company	11	44
Prices next products	19	76
Other products	21	84
Facility for ordering online	19	76
Conventional ways	16	64
Animated cartoon	18	72

Table 5.23. Students' Listening Comprehension in Two Web Sites

The text shows similarities and differences between the two companies, so the majority of the ideas are divided into two parts: one related to one company and the other idea is related to the second, except some information which is specific to one company and not to the other. So, the results show that there is an improvement for students at taking the notes. It is also noticed from the table that almost in all the ideas, there is more than half of the students who took the information. As it is mentioned at the beginning of the practice, students faced some difficulties at understanding the speech of native speakers, but with the help of the researcher and their efforts after many tries, they could get the message.

- **PUMA**

Options	N	%
Title	22	88
1948: from Adidas to puma	19	76
Olympic games: football	15	60
1970: tennis shoes	19	76
1981: puma shoes: Wimbledon	12	48
1986: became public	19	76
innovations: trinomic, disc system	17	68
1993: CEO	19	76
Subsidiaries	14	56
1998: Jill sander: fashion	19	76
2000: online website	19	76
Clothing for business men	13	52
New fashion:	14	56

Table 5.24. Students' Listening Comprehension in PUMA

From the table above, it is noticed that twenty-two (22) students wrote the title, this makes a percentage of 88٪, directly after it, a number of ideas which were taken by students (each one by 19 students), this gives a percentage of 76 ٪ .

- **ADIDAS Saloman**

Options	N	٪
Title	20	80
1st shoe	18	72
1930: a. 30 different shoes	18	72
b. 11 sports	17	68
c. 100 employees	18	72
1948: three stripes	18	72
Core product: athletic shoes	11	44
Logo found at different products	06	24
Problems then comeback	14	56
1990: CEO	20	80
1995: went public	17	68
1996: 60000 athletes	16	64
increase at sales 50٪	14	56
1997: Saloman group partner	18	72
Famous personalities endorsed PUMA	14	56
Continuation to expand	06	24

Table 5.25. Analysis of Students' Listening Comprehension in ADIDAS

Students, with this text, took more notes compared with previous texts starting with the title which scores 8.16٪ of students. Whereas the most important idea for the students is "pointing a CEO" which scores 8.16٪.

5.5.5. Students' Use of Abbreviations and Symbols

- **Seasonal affective disorder (SAD)**

Options	N	%
→	24	96
−	13	52
/	01	04
*	04	16
:	11	44
=	14	56
Arabic	04	16
Doc., Dr, D	05	20
Eg.	01	04
…etc.	03	12
.	03	12
Deleting letters from work	04	16
≠	02	08
No grammar rules	04	16
Adv. (advise)	01	04
Dep. (depression)	02	08
Subs.	01	04
×	02	08
Ab.	01	04
( )	07	28
Sth	02	08
1 2 3	04	16
D (day)	01	04

Table 5.26. Students' Use of Abbreviations in SAD

Students showed more use of abbreviations and symbols than in the pre-test. The most used symbol is → with 96% which summarizes many verbs like: *lead*, *refers*, and *is*, whereas the most used abbreviation is doctors (*Doc.*, *Dr.*, *D*) with 20%.

-   **Our Daily Tutor**

Options	N	٪
inter. N and I.N	03	12
NS	05	20
Cvic	01	04
NP	20	80
Eco	02	08
//	07	28
→	51	18.75
Etc.	01	04
Arabic	03	12
/	01	04
=	38	13.97
e.g.	08	32
-	40	14.71
Line	04	16
:	20	80
α	01	08
,	11	44
Sth	02	08
info	05	20
(Expl)	12	48
NW	04	16
Short form	12	48
1,2,3 and 1^{rs}, 2nd, 3rd	02	08
*	16	64
….	02	08
Blanks	01	04

Table 5.27. Students' Use of Abbreviations and Symbols in Our Daily Tutor

Compared with the first and second performances of students, we notice that students used more abbreviations and symbols which is the purpose of note taking. We notice, too, that students abbreviated the keyword of the text "NP" for newspaper which is the core of note taking in the sense that, students have to abbreviate the main concept of the topic since it is repeated along the text read.

The second element which students get used to is the use of the dash (-) at the beginning of each idea where it scored 40 use of dash.

- **Comparison and Contrast: Two Websites: Hills Cycles and Wheels Unlimited**

Options	N	٪
-	150	35.63
→	74	17.58
2 (two)	12	48
/	11	44
1,2,3	07	28
A,B,C	01	04
§	03	12
Oth (other)	01	04
Y (you)	01	04
*	17	68
α	09	36
Sth	05	20
Etc.	01	04
W U	04	16
H C	03	12
Phrases	50	11.88
" "	02	08
(explanation)	10	40
B (between)	05	20
Diff (difference)	04	16
Sim (similarities)	01	04
Pre (presentation)	04	16
10m	01	04
:	18	72
….	01	04
2 (to)	01	04
≠	03	12
=	08	32
+	01	04

	11	44
.	11	44
<u>Line</u>	01	04
//	01	04

Table 5.28. Use of Abbreviations and Symbols in Two Web Sites

As noticed from the table above and compared with the previous ones, students used more abbreviations and symbols in this text. The main symbol used as usual is the "–"since it the most used symbol in taking notes especially in the outline method.

- **PUMA**

Options	N	٪
Sh (shoe)	01	04
CEO	25	100
→	25	100
⟹	17	68
V (versus)	03	12
50٪	10	40
/	08	32
//	06	24
:	25	100
+	02	08
A	25	100
1st	08	32
11	11	44
( )	19	76
≠	03	12
-	25	100
4 (for)	02	08
Use of Arabic	09	36
Sth (something)	02	08
Etc.	03	12
i.e.	01	04
1, 2, …	04	16
///	03	12
=	19	76
Phrases	25	100
" "	10	40
Word	07	28
Bt (between)	01	04
Short sentences	25	100
Diff (difference)	01	04

….	02	08
Subsi (subsidiary)	01	04
*	02	08
F (football)	01	04
S (shoes)	10	04
Gaps	01	04

Table 5. 29. The Use of Abbreviations and Symbols in PUMA

The table above represents the use of abbreviations and symbols in the text PUMA. Mostly the word or acronym "CEO" was written by all students because the word plays a vital role in the history of both companies.

- **ADIDAS**

Options	N	٪
Sh (shoe)	01	04
CEO	25	100
→	25	100
⟹	17	68
V (versus)	03	12
50٪	10	40
/	08	32
//	06	24
:	25	100
+	02	08
A	25	100
1st	08	32
11	11	44
( )	19	76
≠	03	12
-	25	100
4 (for)	02	08
Arabic	09	36
Sth (something)	02	08
Etc.	03	12
i.e.	01	04
1, 2, …	04	16
100	08	32
///	03	12
=	19	76
Phrases	25	100
" "	10	40
Word	07	28
Bt (between)	01	04
Short sentences	25	100
Diff	01	04

(difference)		
….	02	08
Subsi (subsidiary)	01	04
*	02	08
60000	03	12
F (football)	01	04
S (shoes)	01	04
Gaps	01	04
30	06	24
3	02	08

Table 5.30. Students' Use of Abbreviations and Symbols in ADIDAS

According to the table above, it is noticed that students used abbreviations and symbols more than the previous times. An unexpected result found in this analysis is the word "shoe" which is repeated many times at the script, but it is just abbreviated by one student using "sh". This is maybe due to two reasons: first, the word is short and students could write it easily, and second, it appeared in the previous text.

5.6.   The Post Test: Obesity

In order to measure the usefulness and significance of the instructions given to students, the same pre test is repeated to students following the same steps as before.

5.6.1. Method Used while Taking Notes

Options	Control group		Experimental group	
	N	٪	N	٪
Outline Method	02	08	21	84
No notes Taken	23	92	04	16

Table 5.31. Method Used while Taking Notes in Obesity

In the Control Group, the majority of students did not take notes, but kept listening to the text, whereas in the Experimental Group, the majority of students took notes. Concerning the method used both in the Control and Experimental Group used the Outline Method.

5.6.2. Vocabulary Use while Taking Notes

Options	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	N	٪	N	٪
Sweeteners	01	04	08	32
Sugary	01	04	07	28
Counterparts	00	00	06	24
Miscarriage (abortion)	02	08	09	36
Offspring	02	08	09	36

Table 5.3.2 Vocabulary Use while Note Taking

Both in the Control and Experimental Groups took the words given by the teacher and were written on the board. There is a difference of thirty three words between the Control and the Experimental Group with better results in the Experimental Group. The highest score word is *miscarriage* and *offspring* with twenty three percent.

5.6.3. Vocabulary Use while Writing Essays

Options	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	N	%	N	%
Sweeteners	01	04	07	28
Sugary	01	04	07	28
Counterparts	00	00	00	00
Miscarriage (abortion)	02	08	07	28
Offspring	02	08	04	16

Table 5. 33. Vocabulary Use while Writing Essays

In essay writing, students in both the Control and Experimental Groups scored below average with better results in the Experimental Group. This could be justified that students in the Experimental Group concentrated better and grasped the lessons used to do in class.

5.6.4. Students' Listening Comprehension

Options	Control Group		Experimental Group	
	N	٪	N	٪
Definition of obesity	01	04	13	52
Cause 1	14	56	08	32
Research	02	08	13	52
Cause 2	10	40	06	24
Result of the cause	02	08	05	20
Effect 1	00	00	04	16
Illness (diabetes)	08	32	14	56
Effect 2(women)	02	08	13	52
Effect 3(men)	01	04	12	48
Effect 4 (other diseases)	07	28	10	40
Effect 3 (mental illness)	06	24	09	36
Vocabulary given	05	20	14	56

Table 5.34. Students' Listening Comprehension

Better results are scored in the Experimental Group with 121 ideas taken which is very far from the results scored in the pre –test, with some improvement in the Control Group, too.

Since students in the Experimental Group had more practice on paying attention to verbal and non-verbal clues of the teacher, they could more take down the ideas related to the topic.

5.6.5. Students' Use of Abbreviations and Symbols

Options	N	٪
Numbers	04	16
Short forms	08	32
Def.	06	24
:	06	24
-	25	100
20٪	16	64
words	07	28
Phrases	06	24
Eg.	02	08
Etc.	02	08
1,2,3	05	20
AB	02	08
Type 2	02	08
obz	02	08
α	04	16
TV	18	72
90٪	08	32
+	02	08
arabic	03	12
/	10	40
//	02	08
8-18	13	52
sth	02	08
:	06	24
6 h	11	44
paraphrasing	04	16
➚	01	04
≠	01	04
( )	05	20
>	01	04

Table 5.36. Students' Use of Abbreviations and Symbols

The table above gives the idea that students' scored less than the text before it, but if it is compared with the pre test, it is better, and the notes taken are more organized and even could interpreted.

5.7.   Comparison between the Pre-Test and the Post-Test

From both the pre-test and the post-test, we can notice some ups and downs in students' performances.

First the method of note taking used, it is noticed that students find the best way to take notes is the Outline Method because of its simple and easy directions, without neglecting that some students could manage to use the other methods like the Mapping Method.

Second, students of the Experimental Group developed their listening comprehension if it compared with their performances in the pre-test. Examples of their performances are as follows. "Cause 2" in the pre-test was not written by none of the students in the experimental group, whereas in the post-test was written by six (6) students. Other examples are "result of the cause" and "effect 1" which were not taken by none of the students, but in the post-test were taken by five (5) and four (4) students, respectively.

Third, the vocabulary used while taking notes and while writing essays saw ups and downs. In some texts like "obesity", students took notes while listening including the vocabulary mentioned, whereas during their writing their essays, the majority of students wrote different essays which were under the heading of obesity but had almost nothing to do with the notes taken.

Fourth, students used of abbreviations and symbols progressively, in the sense that they started to use abbreviations instead of writing the whole words, and used symbols

instead of words, too, for some other words. Examples of that are as follow. Students used the abbreviation "def" instead of "is defined". Another example of students' improvement is the use of abbreviations. It is noticed in the pre-test that there is no abbreviation except for the word "obesity" and substituted by the abbreviation "ob", whereas in the post-test, there are multiple changes like "def.", "obz", "sth" and "TV" in addition to "ob".

Last but not least, we can say that there is a difference between students' performances in both the pre-test and post-test in a positive way.

5.8.   Overall Analysis of the Results

The summary of the results obtained from the whole texts done to students are as follows.
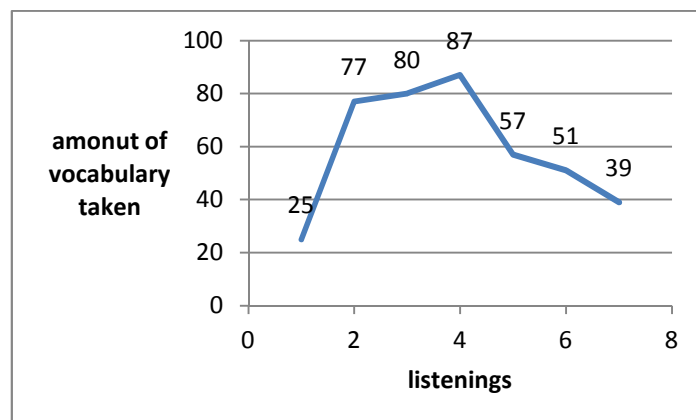
Graph 5.1. Students' Vocabulary Use while Note Taking

The graph shows the successive results of vocabulary while note taking. The results show that until the fourth test which is about "Hills Cycles and Wheels Unlimited" (comparison and contrast topic), students took the vocabulary given, and they showed improvements one after the other. But after the fourth test, students started not to take the words given.
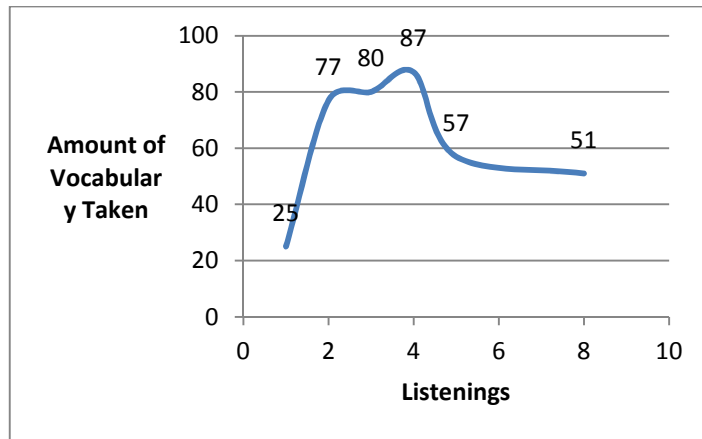
Graph 5.2. Students' Use of Vocabulary at Essays

The second graph shows students' results of using vocabulary while writing their essays. Students' use of the vocabulary given depends on the topic or their preferences while writing. For example, the test 5 about comparing two websites, shows that almost all students used the vocabulary given since they cannot replace them with other words. In the last test, students had to choose among the vocabulary of both texts according to what they think is suitable.
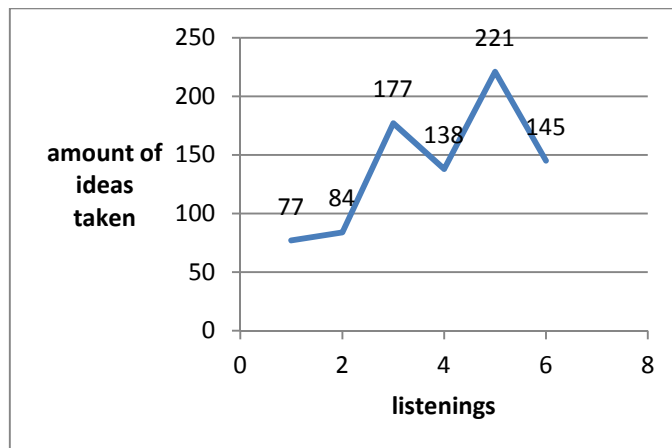
Graph5.3.Students' Listening Comprehension

The graph above shows students' improvements at listening comprehension during the experiment. All the students showed improvements at all the tests except test 1. The reason behind this failure is the way of showing the test. Students used to listen to their teachers who are non-native speakers who help them with nonverbal expressions like

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gestures. This was a kind of an obstacle to students which prevents them from taking the appropriate notes.
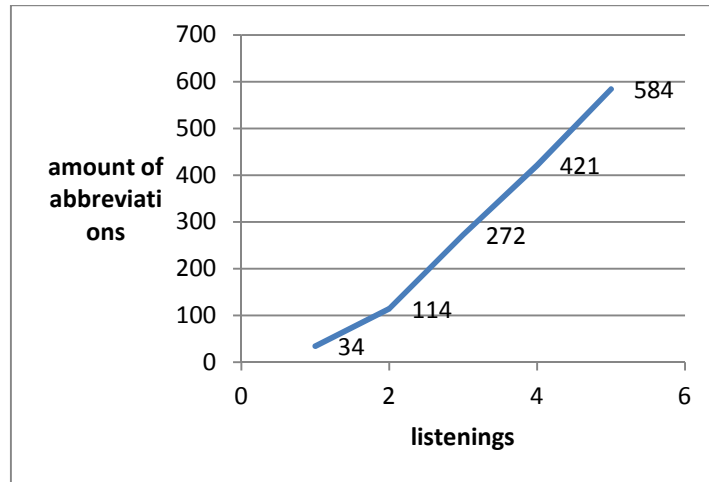
Graph 5.4. Students' Use of Abbreviations and Symbols

The use of abbreviations and symbols is the best improvement for students in the sense that they kept using abbreviations and symbols from the beginning. The results show the improvement from 34 as a start to 584 as a top improvement. While students did not really do well in the post test, they did very better than in the pre test.

Conclusion

According to these results, we can say that the most used note taking method is the Outline Method. This could be justified as follows. First, the Outline Method is simple in the sense that students may write one idea after the other without any planning or division of their copybooks, or there is no need to upload specific sheets from the internet as the Cornell method requires. Second, vocabulary, which is an independent variable in the current research, has had some ups and downs which could be justified, too. On the one hand, vocabularies that have been used in the research are not necessarily new to students but they could be known; they are not used. So, students may use the word they know and use, instead of the word they know and they do not

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use. On the other hand, the most problematic text we have noticed for students is "Two Web Sites" because it was not delivered by the teacher but by native speakers themselves, and it was just listening and not an audio-visual script. This may lead us to point out students' difficulties at understanding native speakers' real life communications. Otherwise, students' succeeded to improve their listening skills by focusing on the verbal and non-verbal clues provided by the teacher.

Chapter Six

Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations

Introduction

The analysis of both the Students' Questionnaire and the experiment has led us to propose some implications and recommendations related to enhancing listening comprehension in the language learning classroom, note taking in the language learning classroom, vocabulary in the language learning classroom, the students' attitudes and awareness and the combination of the modules.

6.1. Listening Comprehension in the Language Learning Classroom

According to the results obtained from the present research, we can say that listening comprehension is a needed skill in order to develop language learning. In the research, we concluded that there are some characteristics which help students to take the ideas discussed of any script like the verbal clues: first, at other words and I repeat, or non-verbal clues: facial expressions and body language. In some cases, too, teachers have to emphasise the point and say directly *"you have to take the idea on your copybooks"* so that they realise that it is important information.

From the experiment, we can emphasise the need to reconsider the methods used to teach Oral Expression since students scored low performances at listening to native speakers. Listening to native speakers needs listening competence which students of English at the Department of English and foreign languages lack.

Teachers should reconsider the mechanics used in teaching Oral Expression by:

• Enhancing the listening to native speakers,

• Giving more time to students' performances and encouraging role plays with the supervision of teachers,

• Giving different kinds of listening so that students can build more knowledge about different genres of vocabulary, and

• Reconsidering the combination between Oral Expression and Phonetics.

6.2. Note Taking in the Language Learning Classroom

Among the skills that college students need during their learning stage is note taking. As a first look, taking notes appears to be an easy matter but looking at students' ways of doing so gives us insights to improve their performances.

The importance of note taking is more emphasised than that of note making. Note taking is a continuous activity that students do during their learning process, whereas note making is just needed in a period of time or where students are asked to do an exposé or if students are prepared to do their memoire or dissertation. Note making is given more importance in the teaching curriculum, whereas note taking is just taught in the first year without emphasising its need in the coming years.

The note taking skills that can be included in the students' curriculum are:

• Teaching note taking skills in both first and second years at the module of study skills with the emphasis that note taking is a needed skill at the coming years,

• Teaching the different methods of note taking including the use of each method and following that by sufficient practice so that students get used to the notion and that not all types of information have the same way to take notes, and

• Practising with students the use of abbreviations and symbols, and emphasising that abbreviations are used while note taking, but when rewriting the notes, full words and structures are required. In addition to that, the use of abbreviations is a personal matter, but at the same, it is needed that students should get used to keeping the same abbreviation or symbol for one word.

6.3. Vocabulary in the Language Learning Classroom

Vocabulary is a very important element in language learning and it is also given importance in the field of research. In the current research, the acquisition of vocabulary is guided and limited by the instructions of the experiment, but at the same time, it could be said that some students ought to learn and acquire more words and try using them as opposed to some others who do not do that unless they are asked to.

In the current study, we tried to include different types of texts which are in some cases bibliographies (like at Puma and Adidas), essays (like at our daily tutor) and scientific texts (like in obesity). There are some requirements that should be done in teaching vocabulary like what is summarized in the following points:

- Vocabulary could be learned in any module and in different genres of vocabulary like literature, civilisation and linguistics.
- First, it would be better if teaching vocabulary would be reinforced in the lectures of Oral Expression and teaching some words depending on the context, and then could be practised in role plays in class.
- Second, extensionally, vocabulary teaching could be included in both Oral Expression and Written Expression modules. In the Oral Expression, teaching vocabulary could be included with other elements of language like intonation or stress; whereas teaching vocabulary could also be taught in the module of Written Expression. In some cases, students are given model essays about some types of essays; in this case, students can learn new words from those texts.

6.4. Students' Attitudes and Awareness

From the research, students could be said that they are aware of their learning in general and their learning styles more specifically.

It would be better to reconsider the entry test for first year English, that is to say, if we classify students' attitudes and styles at the beginning, it would be easy for us to teach students because students differ in the way they learn as everyone of us. There are students, with all teachers' reinforcement to make them take notes, cannot, since they prefer just to take the key words. The reason behind this is that they learn by listening and they are not visual learners as other students who prefer to take almost every word said or written by the teacher.

To develop awareness, students should be put in the picture, i.e. they should be told of the aim of each single element of the learning curriculum so that they learn and know that each part of the lecture is beneficial at his/her learning scale. For example, in the case of note taking, students should know that in the future or in the coming years, they are going to need taking notes while listening to lectures, and teachers are going to explain rather than dictate. Moreover, being presented with different vocabularies is useful; students should also know that their work or their diploma is not obtained just to teach, but they could work at other sectors like embassy, commerce and journalism, and the knowledge they get from different genres of vocabulary is of great importance.

6.5. Combination of Modules

From the current study, it should be noticed that there should be an interaction work between two modules at the level of information and vocabulary building, that is to say a combination between oral expression and written expression since students can exchange information and vocabulary from and to both modules.

On the other side, teachers or responsible of modules should reconsider the combination of some modules. We suggest the following points:

• Oral Expression and Phonetics could be combined in the sense that both modules are based on pronunciation, stress and intonation. Teachers of both modules could elaborate a shared curriculum in which they teach theory in one (Phonetics) and teach practice in the other (Oral Expression),

• Written Expression and Oral Expression can work in combination, too, in the sense that in one module, students can learn vocabulary more deliberately because there are different situations in which new vocabularies can be presented, for example in the module of Oral Expression, whereas in the module of Written Expression, students can use information and vocabulary presented previously to build their essays if the situations are similar.

Conclusion

In the current research, students have learned how to take appropriate notes from different types of texts. As a result, students could learn the different methods of taking notes and how they differentiate between major and minor ideas, and each type of information may result in a different way of taking notes. Moreover, students can from now on benefit from what they learn in both Oral Expression and Written Expression.

General Conclusion

The present study sets to identify the students' difficulties while listening, that is to say students' difficulties in listening comprehension and what makes them not understand lectures. On the other hand, students try to acquire new words, but when it comes to practise and performance, they show weaknesses on the level of vocabulary. Since students take notes when teachers explain lessons, and sometimes the information said by teachers is in the heart of the topic, students lack the ability to take notes and to which idea to take and which idea to leave. So, the aims of the research are to make students differentiate between important and less important ideas, and to make them use passive vocabulary to be active vocabulary. We hypothesise that if students use listening strategies while listening, they will take better notes, and if they use the passive vocabulary in their essays, they will become active vocabulary. In order to realise that, we handed in a questionnaire to Second Year students at the Department of Letters and English at the University Des Frères Mentouri, Constantine, and developed an experiment. The experiment was realised in two levels. The first one is in the Oral Expression module where students listened to a text read by the researcher. The students took notes, and the researcher gave them words and explained them in order for them to use them while rewriting the notes. In the second one, the Written Expression module, students rewrote their notes and wrote essays depending on the type of essay, either a cause-effect essay, or a comparison-contrast essay.

The Students' Questionnaire and the experiment have revealed a number of points. First, the listening skill, which is a basic element in the learning process of any second or foreign language, appeared to be a problematic point for students of English. On the other hand, students, following what they learn and practising it, has shown

improvement in paying attention to verbal and non-verbal clues provided by teachers, and in the future by native speakers, and this is what real life communication supplies.

Note taking is a useful skill in the learning process and in any field of work; however, students do not know its importance and its use until they become advanced learners, that is to say when they start preparing their dissertations or when teachers ask them to do so. After practice, students' level in this skill, has improved especially in the use of abbreviations and symbols which are major elements in taking notes. Students have proved that taking notes is a personal matter, and for one word, we can find different abbreviations or symbols.

Vocabulary is the basis of any language. To learn any foreign language, the first thing students want to do is to learn vocabulary. In the present research, the aim was to make students get used to some words which are known to them but not used. At the beginning, the students showed some weaknesses in doing so, but after practice, they started to use the words. The words given in the experiment were known by students not to make them find difficulties to deal with them. That is to say, it is going to be easy to students to use the words, since they know the meaning and they have already a synonym to the word. Students could develop awareness in other ways. They started to pay attention to other expressions or other parts of language which are non-verbal like facial expressions, body language, gestures and voice change, especially that the lectures delivered to them are full of them.

The combination of the modules like in the present case, students have to make the connection between what they learn in Oral Expression and practise it in Written Expression. Students learn that other modules may give them many opportunities to be active in the classroom and to understand better.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: The Students' Questionnaire

APPENDIX II: Lesson 00

APPENDIX II: Sample Texts Read to Students

APPENDIX IV: Sample of Students' Performance in Note Taking

- Obesity

- Newspaper

- SAD

- Hills Cycles and Wheels Unlimited

- Puma and Adidas

APPENDIX VI: Sample of Students' Performances in Essays

- Obesity

- Newspaper

- SAD

- Hills Cycles and Wheels Unlimited

- Puma and Adidas

Appendix I

The Students' Questionnaire

Dear students,

 This questionnaire is part of a research. It aims at finding out the effectiveness of listening comprehension and note taking on vocabulary acquisition.

Please, tick ( ) the appropriate box or make a full statement when necessary.

Your answers will be of great help for this study.

May I thank you in advance for your help.

<div align="right">

Miss: OUAZETA Amel

Department of Foreign Languages

Faculty of   Letters and Languages

University of Constantine 1

</div>

Section One: Vocabulary Learning/Acquisition

1.   Do you try to learn vocabulary on your own?

Yes ☐

No ☐

2.   If "Yes", do you use:
a.   A dictionary ☐
b.   Word lists ☐
c.   Other: Please.

……………………………………………………………………………………….

3.   During lectures, do you learn vocabulary?

Yes ☐

No ☐

4.   If "Yes", do you
a.   Infer from context ☐
b.   Use dictionary ☐
c.   Ask the teacher ☐
d.   Other: Please.

…………………………………………………………………………………………

Section Two: Listening Comprehension

5.   The listening ability helps you in understanding lectures:

Yes ☐

No ☐

6.   If "Yes", Please explain why.

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………..

7.   While listening to lectures, do you find difficulties?

  Yes   ☐

   No   ☐

8.   If "Yes", is it:
a.   Vocabulary   ☐
b.   Grammar   ☐
c.   Structure   ☐
d.   Speed   ☐
e.   Other: Please.

………………………………………………………………………………………

Section Three: Note Taking and Abbreviations

9.   Do you take notes while your teacher presents the lecture?

  Yes   ☐

   No   ☐

10.   Note taking is:
a.   Writing what the teacher says   ☐
b.   Taking every idea said by the teacher   ☐
c.   Writing short phrases using abbreviations and symbols   ☐
d.   Other: Please, specify.

………………………………………………………………………………………

11.   What type of note taking you use?
a.   The Outline Method: writing each idea on a separate line following the order
b.   The Cornell Method: it divides the page into three columns; each column   ☐
contains specific items of the lecture (titles, details and cues).   ☐

c.　　The Mapping Method: the main idea comes at the centre and the supporting ideas around it attached with arrows.

☐

d.　　The Paragraph Method: each idea is written at the form of a paragraph.

☐

e.　　Other, please specify.

……………………………………………………………………………………

12.　　Do your teachers ask you to take notes?

Yes

☐

No

☐

13.　　If "Yes", how often do they ask you to take notes?

a.　　Always

☐

b.　　Sometimes

☐

14.　　When you take notes, do you rewrite them at home?

Yes

☐

No

☐

15.　　Do you think that the notes you take are sufficient?

Yes

☐

No

☐

16.　　Please, explain why.

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………..

17.　　When you take notes, do you use abbreviations?

Yes

☐

No

☐

18.　　If "Yes", is it?

a.　　Your teacher who told you to do it

☐

☐

b.   You decided to do it

19.   When you use abbreviations, do you

a.   Keep the same abbreviation for the same word each time   ☐

b.   Forget about the abbreviation   ☐

c.   Other: Please.

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

20.   Do you know the meaning of the following abbreviations:

number	abbreviation	Meaning	number	abbreviation	Meaning
1	#		16	Mat.	
2	@		17	Ed.	
3	%		18	info.	
4	b4		19	Def.	
5	$		20	♀	
6	+		21	♂	
7	_		22	α	
8	<		23	Vs.	
9	≤		24	E.g.	
10	>		25	I.e.	
11	≥		26	Etc.	
12	=		27	Bc	
13	≠		28	↑	
14	?		29	↓	
15	!		30	∞	
16	Max.		31	intro.	

21.   Please, add other abbreviations and symbols that you are used to use and give their full words.

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………..

22.   When you decide to revise or rewrite your notes, do you find difficulties in decoding the abbreviations?

a.   Yes   ☐

b.   No   ☐

23.   If yes, please explain why.

…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………

Section Four: Further Suggestions

24.   Please, add any further comment or suggestion.

…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………….

Lesson 00: Taking Notes

Date:

Class: Oral Expression

2nd Year Group:

Lesson plan:

1.   **Definition of Taking Notes**
2.   **Types of Taking Notes**
2.1.   **The outline method**
2.2.   **The mapping method**
2.3.   **The Cornell method**
3.   **Abbreviations and Symbols**
4.   **Activities**

The Body of the Lesson:

1.   **Definition of Taking Notes:**

   Taking notes is a skill used to help you at learning. It is used both while reading and listening. Mastering taking notes helps at recording good notes and helps to have a record to the future. Note taking is not writing every word said by the teachers, so the selection of important ideas and what supporting ideas are linked to them is at the core of taking notes.

2.   **Types of Taking Notes:**

   There is more than one way to take notes. Try to choose the appropriate format to you and according to each type of lesson.

2.1.   The Outline Method

It uses one idea after the other respecting the order of ideas given.

E.g. an outline of the different methods of taking notes.

I. Note taking methods

    A. Outline

        1. Linear

        2. Useful for including details

    B. Mind Mapping

        1. Non Linear

        2. Visual

    C. Cornell

        1. Divided page

        2. Left Margin for keywords and concepts

    D. Informal paragraphs

        1. Best for students who can write fast

        2. Use short phrases rather than full sentences.

II. Note taking Review Methods

2.2.   The Mapping Method

It is to write the main topic at the middle of the page and then you link each sub idea to it. E.g. the following is a mind mapping of methods of taking notes.

Outline

Main idea:
Methods of taking notes

Informal paragraphs

Cornell

Mind mapping
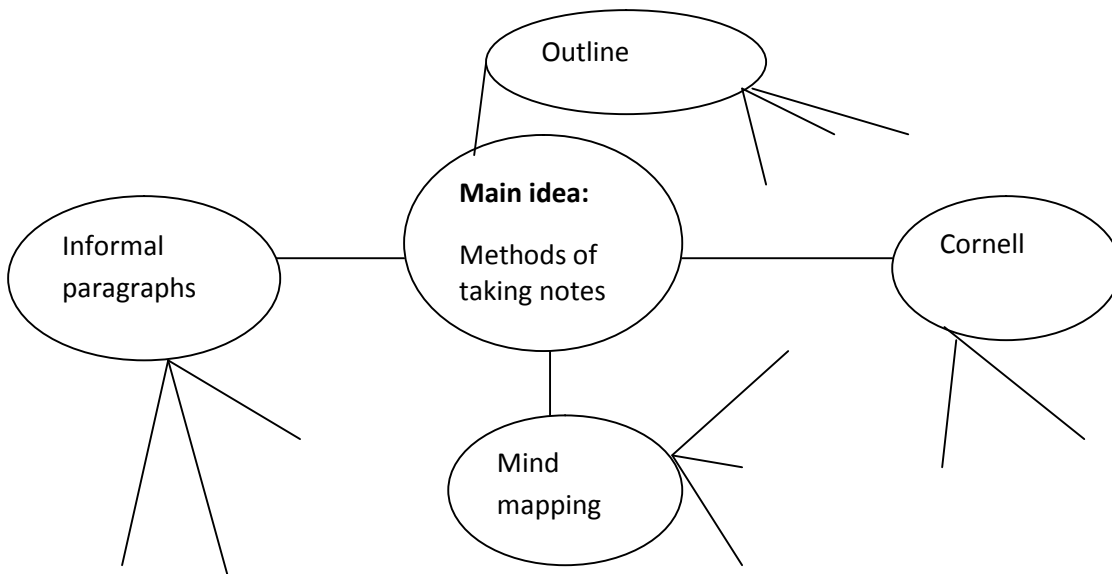
2.3.   The Cornell Method;

This method used three-part paper, at which it is divided into cue column, summary and detail parts.

| Methods

Can use mind

maps and outline

w/Cornell

Notes go here

Use abbrev. | **Cornell**: divided page, place for keywords at left margin, linear but can integrate other methods.

Mind mapping: visual drawing a picture, non-linear, big picture and adds arrows and lines, integrates brain activity

Outline: linear, left brained-for detailed person, works best to leave space.

informal paragraphs: works for difficult or disorganized lectures, works when instructor uses lots of quotes, best to use short phrases and abbreviations, need to be able to write fast, very often you'll need go back and redo/organize. |
| | Summary: |

No matter how is the type used to take notes, but what is important is to keep the notes organized and readable.

3.   Abbreviations and Symbols:

Abbreviations and symbols are very helpful while taking notes. When taking notes, try to keep the same abbreviation for the same word; one way to do that is by omitting vowels from the word like at sprt (sport), or omitting the half of the word like at ling. (linguistics), or substituting the word by another symbol like at ↑ (increase). Here is a list of the most common abbreviations and symbols used at English.

number	abbreviation	Meaning	number	abbreviation	meaning
1	#	Number	17	Mat.	Maximum
2	@	At, approximately	18	Ed.	Edition
3	%	Percent	19	info.	information
4	b4	Before	20	Def.	Definition
5	$	dollar, money	21	♀	Female, woman
6	+	Plus, add, more	22	♂	Male, man
7	_	Minus, less	23	α	and
8	<	Less than	24	Vs.	Versus
9	≤	Less than or equal	25	E.g.	example
1	>	Greate	26	I.e.	that is

0		r than			
1 1	≥	Greater than or equal	**27**	Etc.	etcetera
1 2	=	equals	**28**	Bc	because
1 3	≠	does not equal	**29**	↑	increases
1 4	?	Question	**30**	↓	Decreases
1 5	!	Something odd or bizarre	**31**	∞	infinite number
1 6	Max.	Maximum	**32**	intro.	introduction

4.   Activity:

Listen to the lecture and try to take notes using the method you think is suitable and use abbreviations and symbols.

APPENDIX III

Sample Texts Read to Students

Obesity:

Obesity was traditionally defined as an increase in body weight that was greater than 20 percent of an individual's ideal body weight. However, today the definitions of overweight and obesity are based strictly on measures of height and weight—not morbidity.

The rapid rise in obesity is likely due to major shifts in environmental factors and changes in behaviour rather than a significant change in human genetics. For example, early feeding patterns imposed by an obese mother upon her offspring may play a major role in a cultural, rather than genetics, transmission of obesity from one generation to the next.

The root causes of childhood obesity are complex and are not fully understood, but it is clear that children become obese when they eat too much and exercise too little. In addition, many children make poor food decisions, choosing to eat unhealthy, sugary snacks and sweeteners instead of healthy fruits and vegetables. Lack of calorie-burning exercise has also played a major role in contributing to childhood obesity. In 2005, a survey found that American children age 8 to 18 spent an average of about six hours a day watching television and videos, playing video games, and using computers.

Another cause was shown when pregnant rats consume high-fat diets, brain cells in the developing fetuses produce large quantities of appetite-stimulating proteins. As a result, these rats eat more, weigh more, and mature sexually earlier in life compared with rats whose mothers consumed normal levels of fats during pregnancy.

Obesity may be undesirable from an aesthetic sense, especially in parts of the world where slimness is the popular preference, but it is also a serious medical problem. Generally, obese persons have a shorter life expectancy; they suffer earlier, more often, and more severely from a large number of diseases than do their normal-weight counterparts. For example, people who are obese are also frequently affected by diabetes; in fact, worldwide, roughly 90 percent of type II diabetes cases are caused by excess weight. In addition, obese women are often affected by infertility, taking longer to conceive than normal-weight women, and obese women who become pregnant are at an increased risk of miscarriage. Men who are obese are also at increased risk of fertility problems, since excess body fat is associated with decreased testosterone levels. In general, relative to normal-weight individuals, obese individuals are more likely to die prematurely of degenerative diseases of the heart, arteries, and kidneys, and they have an increased risk of developing cancer. Obese individuals also have an increased risk of death from accidents and constitute poor surgical risks. Mental health is affected; behavioral consequences of an obese appearance, ranging from shyness to overly bold self-assertion, may be rooted in neuroses and psychoses.

SAD

When winter arrives, some people get sad, even suicidal.

Doctors have recently started to study the causes of a medical disorder, that they have appropriately named SAD, or seasonal affective disorder .people who suffer from SAD become very depressed during the winter months. Their depression appears to be the result of a decrease in the amount of sunlight they are exposed to. Doctors theorize that decreased sunlight affects the production of melatonin. A hormone manufactured in the brain, and serotonin, a chemical that helps transmit nerve impulses. Depression may result from the ensuing[1] imbalance of these two substances in the body. Also, doctors believe that a decrease in the amount of sunlight the body receives may cause a disturbance in the body's natural clock[2] which could, in turn, result in symptoms such as lethargy[3] oversleeping, weight gain, anxiety, and irritability---all signs of depression.

Since absence of light seems to be the cause of this disorder, a daily dose of light appears to be the cause of this disorder, a daily dose of light appears to be the cure .Doctors advise patients to sit in front of a special light box that simulates[4] natural light for a few hours every day.

In conclusion, the depressive effect of low sunlight levels may help explain the high suicide rate in the Scandinavian countries, and more importantly, it may suggest a remedy[5]. When the days grow short, turn on the lights.

Two Web Sites

Tutor hello you tow? Have a seat…OK? You're going to tell me about the presentation you're preparing for week's marketing seminar, right?

Jack: that's right. We've drafted this plan for you to look at …

Tutor: ok, thanks. Perhaps you could just talk me through it, could you? Sarah, do you want to begin

Sarah: yes well, we're going compare the websites of tow bicycle companies…..

Tutor: Right….And they're called Hills Cycles and wheels Unlimited?

Sarah: yes. And did you find much difference between the websites? jack?

Jack: Quite a bit, yes wheels Unlimited has a lot more pages, for a start …. Both

Companies show the in catalogue I mean pictures of different models of bike, with specifications

Tutor: And prices?

Jack: yes, they're there too, although they list them in different ways-Hills Cycles have got them next to the pictures and Wheels Unlimited show them on a separate page .

Sarah: but wheels Unlimited advertises lots of other products connected with bikes-like helmets, and clothing, and tools.

Jack: yes, all kinds of things.

Tutor: And hills Cycles?

Sarah: No They only show the bikes themselves.

Tutor: OK, we well….is there anything on the Hills Cycles website that Wheels Unlimited doesn't have?

Jack: Not really.

Sarah: yes there is –it's got a little photo of the original shop, and a paragraph about the history of the company- it's family owned

Jack: Oh yes, I forgot about that

Tutor: Right …..That's the consent then .and you compared the functions of the two websites, did you?

Jack: yes, hills Cycles doesn't have any facility for online ordering, you have to ring up to order something, that's the only way you can do it

Sarah: well no, you can send off for a paper catalogue with an order form

Jack: Oh yes, I suppose so .but with wheels Unlimited you can order online or in the conventional ways

Sarah: That's right

Sarah: fine. OK. And what about the presentation? Did you find any particular differences there? Or similarities? What about visuals?

(source).

Reading the daily news makes us better citizens by informing us about what is happening in the world around us. First, the international news alerts us to developments around the world that may have profound consequences. For example, when another country tests a nuclear weapon or a region erupts in violence, the news may not be pleasant, but our understanding is crucial because such events affect all of us and perhaps even the future of the planet. In addition, our awareness of current events can get us involved in causes such as stopping the spread of nuclear weapons or righting the wrongs that create regional hatreds. Second, the national news keeps us in touch with events closer to home. We learn of political developments in Washington that may change the way we live, and we make judgments about our leaders' actions that will influence the way we vote in the next election. Last but not least, the state and local news keeps us in touch with our regional politicians and with issues like economic development that affect our area. All this information goes into our personal data bank and informs our voice in the great chorus of American democracy.

Almost as important as the news is the background information the newspaper supplies in order to give the news an understandable context. We are shown detailed

maps of regions that are experiencing a conflict or natural disaster, and we are given the historical background to news events like the fighting in the Middle East. When the El Niño weather system emerged, newspapers ran detailed accounts of the weather system's causes, effects, and possible future. In addition, the workings of government institutions like Congress and the Supreme Court are regularly explained. New scientific developments like vaccines for AIDS and the cloning of animals are also explained in language all of us can understand. The newspaper gives us not only the information but also the understanding we need to make sense of developments in our world.

Most importantly, the newspaper offers us a vivid connection to our community. By reading the paper, we learn of important civic meetings that offer us the opportunity to get involved on the local level to help improve our neighborhoods. Moreover, our local newspaper helps give our town an identity and connects us to our neighbors. We keep abreast of the activities of local clubs and teams, and we learn of births, marriages, and deaths in our town. We read letters to the editor that tell us what our neighbors think of issues big and small, and we also participate in the pride of ownership when we read of local residents who win awards or gain

ADIDAS SALOMAN

The founder of Adidas was Adi Dassler . he made his first shoe in his workshop in Nuremburg, Germany in 1920.A passionate athlete, he was always present in person at important sports events.

In the mid 1930S, Adi Dassler was making 30diffrent shoes for eleven sport and had a workforce of 100 employees.

In 1948, he introduced Adidas as the company name and in 1949he registered the company 's trademark, the three stripe.

The company's core product is athletic shoes, including tennis, running and basketball, but its three stripes logo appears on clothing, and even on sunglasses.

Addidas had problems surviving in competitive and fast-moving market in the early days, but it made comeback by shifting production to Asia and strengthening its marketing budget.

Addidas had always been a manufacturing and sales company but when Robert Louis Dreyfus became CEO in the early 1990S,it changed into a marketing company, licensing products under the Adidas name and using its brand image to make the products successful.

In 1995, Adidas went public on the Frankfurt and Paris stock exchanges.

In 1996,the company equipped more than 60,000 athletes at the Olympic Games in Atlanta .this led to an increase in its clothing sales of 50%.

In 1997 was a significant date in its history .in that year, it acquired the Saloman Group, makers of ski and golf equipment .The company's new name became Adidas Saloman.

Many famous personalities from different sports have endorsed Adidas products, such as   Mohammed Ali, Franz Beckembauer, David Beckham and Maurice Greene, the American sprint champion.

Adidas Saloman is continuing to expand worldwide by opening more of its own stores .it plans to have an additional 25 to 35 stores by the end of the year ,on top of the 200 stores it already operates.

PUMA

In 1948 Rodulf Dassler left his brother's company Adidas to set up his own shoe company, Puma. After successes with it products on the football pitch and athletics track, Puma became a limited partnership.

It had further successes at the Olympic games and world cups with the players such as the famous Brazilian footballer Pelé wearing Puma shoes.

In the 1970s it had success with tennis shoes and by 1981 many American football stars were using Puma shoes. Later, the tennis stars Martin Navratilova and Boris Becker won the Wimbledon Tournament wearing Puma shoes.

In the 1986, Puma became a corporation and went public   on the Munich and Frankfurt stock exchanges.

At the time, Puma introduced many innovations in shoes design such as the Trinomic and disc system shoes.

Jochen Zeitz was appointed CEO in 1993 and a year later Puma made a profit for the first time since going public.

After more athletic successes, Puma established Puma North America as a wholly owned subsidiary.

In 1998, Puma linked sport and fashion when it launched a collection with the fashion designer Jil Sander. It also placed products in top Hollywood movies.

In 2000, Puma launched www.puma. Com. It was successful in the first year of its operation. It also continued to link fashion and clothing, cooperating with many leading designers.

The company also launched clothing and footwear for business travellers to wear on business trips.

APPENDIX IV

Sample of Students' Note Taking

- Obesity

- SAD

- Our Daily Tutor

- Hills Cycles

3.5. PUMA

3.6. ADIDAS

Obesity

Obesity

Obesity was traditional defined

However today

the rapid wise is to measure a high

the play a major role

their roots causes from childhood

when to eat to much and less exercises _ Unhealth sugar

and 2005 - 08 - 18 . watching TV - Computer - playing

show on by slushes

X= As a results weights more , mature sexualy more   in

gey pregrency

_ Obesity untreseable

                    serious
            It is also a serious medical problems

generally people the suffer

for example people who are obese they affected

on duability . Obese women of fertility _

And who became pregnant because stress .

and general relative   acess of whieoght

to die _ deseases of the heart and

develping cancer, poor chronuury mrn

mental head is affected may be as.

obesity traditional increase. 20%. (W)

today is measure on height and weight.

chang in behaivour

n a ohs' genetic.

spring. major role in genteric.

causes are complese. but clear ch.

eat too much exrcice too little.

decitioi unhely. sugar swetner insteol vegetable.

200 (America ch.

about. 6 pou o day playing video game.

anothe show brain sais. mothee large of.

stimulitg.

eat more weight more.

whose mother consume sugar during pregama

from istatic. slimmer the populor.

serious medical. —

how shorter early. long number of suffer. discuoss

eg: people are dring → ᵔᷞ care.

90% type 2. diabetii → access weight.

drir moms. become pregnant. /risk of problen

P⊙

~~obesity was mumonally~~

Hereever .

(10)
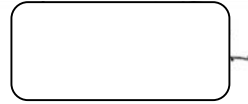
- the root causes of childhood

children become obeis when they eat
choose to eat unhealthy and sweet.

American children

- high for diet

- Obesity may be undesirable

- or serious medical problem.

People who are obeis they are effected
Obese women are affected by fertility
Obese individuals

(1)

Obesity was traditionally defined as

however   are based strictly

the rapid rise is due to changes in

may play a role

obesity are complex and not understand

many children become obese because they eat without

in 2005, that American children spend   watching

playing video games, and stay   computers.

As a result, they eat more,

during pregnancy.

obesity undesirable especially in components in world
where there people is the most reputed unless obesity is
an illness.

People who are obese are frequently affected by diabe

obese women are affected by infertility. Obese wo
who are pregnant risk offspring miscarriage.

In general, obese people have an increase risk of developp
cancers.
Mental health is affected → shiness.

There are many people suffer from the obesity, really it is a big problem to become obese as a definition of this latter it is when a person became extreamly fat and had a big weight. The person who had may be we find him Kilogrames. there is some of them affected with by eating more and more but from the others affected by as a couses of obesity when the children eating too much because Children

as major causes of obesity is to eat supper too much, It inflent on health, because when the children became obese the major cause is eating too much, a

The scientists of America find that the children between 8 to 18 old are obese due to watching T.V and Video and play games six hours in day all this thing have an impact on the health and make children fat, as a third reason of obesity.

SAD

SAD
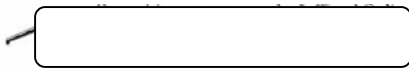
- when winter arrives some people become SAD and suicide

- Doctors studies ^causes of SAD recently

- Depressed during the winter is affected on people.

- Decrease sunlight affected seeratonin → Hormons.

- Doctors →p a decrease in the amount of s l.

    - oversleeping

    - ~~energy~~ anxiety

- Doctors advice patients to set in front natural ~~light~~ clock in few h

SAD

disorder

SAD

Seasonal

Affective

mood = Temper

17

Sad = Seasonal affective disorder

S = seasonal.
A = Affective.
D = Disorder

lethargy = tiredness.

remedy = cure.

to ensue = comes directly after (sth)

irritability = easily annoyed.

SAD

→ when winter arrives some people get sad. doc recently started to study SAD
& dep peop dicrease in the amount sunlight. Also doc bel. body recive
which could. wle reson in symp in hantib dity. Since ab of light
appears. doc advu pat to bet god few hours. suicide

S A D → Disorder   - lethargy = easily annoyed
and   Affetis   answe =
        when winter arrive   ⑤

doctors start to study the causes of medical disord
people who suffer from sad became very depressed
during the winter month
. o
  doctors believe that a decreas in amount in sun light
may cause.

- Absence of light result depresion, over sleep

doctor advise to set int

- hight rate of suia de. in scandilurian contries
natural clock => regular time for sleeping an waeking

- Hormons are produce when our body are exposed
in sun light

Newspaper

The newspaper makes us better citizens. by inform us what happen in the world around us.

- Som the news sometimes isn't pleasant such as aneclore issues. problems.

- it helps you change your way of life by keeping you in touch of politicalissues .and social issues it (awares) us about news of health.

- the state and local news keeping you in touch political issues and the economic

- The newspaper is the background of information.

- it is giving us historical background like fight in The Middle East.

- they inform. us about the weather or what happen weather system comes.and possible future.

erupts: it started suddenty.

Hatred: a extremely strong feeling ofdislike.

Chorus: a group of things which give birth to sth.

Niño.   = is a name of weather it happened in the pacific ocean.
        is a series of change in the weather.

outstanding , very important.

The Daily tutor, The private teacher

- make us better
    better Citizens — what is happenning in the world around us
- to Development   around the world
- such event affect all us and perhaps even The Safety
        stoping, The spread.

- mak Keep in touch, political Deve / mak pjugment.
- Keep touch agional politition / Our voice / american Democracy
- Back   The news, details, maps, information and Eisodical.
- The weather Systen. Causes. effect and Eist orical Back ground
- vivid connection to our Community
- tell us Editor what matters Teinks
- feeling more engaged with our community.

- irupts: start suddenly
- hatreds: hate
- Charges: an; ext grap of element which make something.
- nino: is the name of the weather which is situated
    in the pacific accean.
- robust adj   you have The recently informatia
- out standing: finish. accomplishment (motion a ...l)

Our daily tutor.

- tutor → private teacher.

- life tutor : ~~Like newspaper~~ it is what do we learn i
  ~~⊗~~ from many sources, like Newspaper.

reading daily N.P

- daily news → citizens
  1) internatinal news → know what's hapns in wol
  ~~consequences~~ :
  ~~weakness involved~~

  2) national news → news of our country
     - change way we live.
     - " " vote. ---

  3) local news → affect our area.

NewsPaper & maps, historical background, details accou

N.P :- vivid connection to our community.
listens ← - feeling more engaged in our "
         Definitions ⸪
. to erupt - to start suddenly.
- hatreds : hate.
- Chorus : a part of a song which is repeated
           each verse.

- ElNenew : weather in pacific Ocean
- Abrest of recent information.
  out standing finished successfuly.

Our daily tutor
* Newspapers *
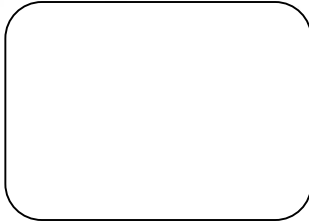
Reading NPs are the daily news, in order to know what happening in the world.

Inter. Ns

~~When are~~ news may be not be present,

Our awareness

writing the ones that

News keeps us in touch with events (

- in order to give news (disasters).

Local news

Newspapers runs to ~~know~~ write about events, w is happening.

a vivid

- offers us to ~~giving~~ connextion to our community

- CiViC meetings, (local nps helps us

- we keep up rest., marriages, deaths, work

- get us engaged wi' to our community.

data bank ~~NsPrs~~

El Nino.

to erupt to start suddenly.

(hatred - hate. ~~course~~ chorus..

...'ve rill re

our daily tutor: Just causes.

Reasons of reading News paper:

to be in touch with the international world.

it is cheap.

be update.

(Learn) gain Experience from others Experience

Making us better citizen. gain information.
inform us about what is happens.
    make our data bank richer.
increase the Social (Society.) conscience.
keep us in touch => with local news, politician, ecc
give the understanding we need to.
"   - connection to community: meetings,
give our town identity.
    feeling more Engaged in the community.

Two Websites

1- Content of each sites

- Helmets, cycles. (→) durations:
  Next to the picture.

wells Unlimited
Shows pictures

* 2- Functions
  H, c (→) No (facility) for ordering online
  wills unlimited (→) Order Online

3- Presentation
W - U (→) does not have animated ~~cartoon~~ cartoon (moving graphics) on top of the
                                                                    Home page
H, c (→) Animated cartoon on top of the Home page

Comparison   bycycle Companies

H, c (→)   Next to the picture   - Content
            (catalogue).   - presentation
                                                    ↓
Show only bikes themselves   evaluation

Paragraph - (→) History of the shop. (Family Owned).
U, w (→) - lot more ~~contents~~ page as a start.
            Show their catalogue
        - Shows them in a seperate page.
        - Helmets (advertise more products connected with
            bikes like (Helmet) tools, Clothing).
        - you can (order) online or in (Conventional) way
                                            (Traditional).

differences between two websites

Hills Cycles

The prices next to
the pictures
only the bikes
pictures
- Information
about the history
of the company
- No order online
- animated cartoon on
the Home Page.

wheels Unlimited

- A lot of pages
- The prices are in a
different page
- shows other product
like helmet. clothing

- you can order online

facility
to send off

Conventional. traditional

Okey, thanks.

So, the presentation. Okey

- Perhaps, she could do & works

- Yes,   to website.

- alright, they call him 1 and wheels unlimited
       Hills cycles

and we compare the content of each websites and the pres
+ then we turn the evaluation function above
okey. has not   and prises.
c   and did you find much + you the de to site.   — with
on seperate page.   specification
                    t yes
+ No,

yes, and content   and the present diff or similar
- Did you find much + the prices.
King   yes, there are ol reset the picture
    on secret page   are shown
+ yes, the compagne.
- No, they
and you compare the function
but. Well, is there anything
+ that's right
- Okey, the + took to m. about the presentation.
* Hills cycles / wheels unlimited.
bikes. motorsicles.

They are making comparison in the presentation the + product on
the & websites.

Content, function.

Content wheels cycles has a lot more pages as a start (function)
prices. Hills cycles cites then next to the pictures
whereas the other on catalogue
wheels unlimited
             helmets, clothing + tool.

conpenes · and *kills* *sycals* ·

2/- we contant · *the* each site.

3/- yes, *diffeens* *to* find *diffrens* .

4/- pictness, *sepsfication* .

5/- the *snginal* *shop*.

6/- the contant - the fanction - evaluation presentation.

7/- limited ·

8/- prit , *diff* , *smlle* = pictures .

9/- the *contain*.

10/. Hills cycles / wheels unlimited ·

11. Catalogue .

12/. H.C Next to the pruitue ·

13/- W.U on sepradly .

14/- W.U. a limited · other product ,

15/- H. they just show the bikes .

16/- No, realy the history about the conpeny · familly *ollns*.

17/ - H.C the faalty of my other ·

18/- tosend off = tosend *serckes* *on* *line* sonthing in order to get sonthing in return

19/- on line or conVandiol ways .

20/. old form ·

21/- presotain · animation · graficars .

22/- U are atradive ·

23/. H.C have an animation scartoon on the top of ~~thorlde~~ page ·

24/. W.J have ·

25/

9 ... 26.

ok so you can tell about your presentation next week

she could perhaps you could.

yes well (two bycricls)

right   websit

compor. Content —of the— (X) presentation and then about a evaluation

different
yes, they listing different ways (different pictures)

showed in (secret) page
which   listens (did you find much   specification wit
                                      the separate page) .

. yes, the (s) about history (∧)

that the content

we con't

presentant did you find any particular. difficulties .
                                      differences or .
the main thing.

Hills Cycles / wheels unlimited.

two websit I mean (picture, content, function , animation) ✓

content ( )
       wheels Cycles has a lot more pages are a start.

prices (-) Hills Cycles cites them next to the pictures whereas the others

the other separat page.

wheels unlimited (-) shows other products like (helmets , clothing (x) tools

PUMA and ADIDAS

Puma

Rudolf Dassler in 1948

It became very successful thanks to
Pelly

It started producining Tenns sh.
in 1970

When Navatilova won, Puma became
more successful because

1993 puma appointed a (CEO) (chief/
Executive/officer

1998 Jil sander worked with puma
=> they produced clothes. shoes ...

In 2000 puma lunched www. puma. cc

After 2000 —> it produced business not
clothes.

wrap up): to buy sth very quickly (maybe it's sheep.)

a) Puma:

- Sole = unique, only 1 sole brothers.
- In 1948, Rudolf ~~Dassler~~ (common) left his brother and he started to found shoe company. After his success in ~~products~~ ~~on the football~~ patch = special area of doing sport
- Pele In 1970s It has success with beauty's shoes. in 1981 may stars (footballer) made it. American
- Tournament = tournoi

In 1986 Puma became a corporation a Frankford in Munich
- It introduces many innovation, ~~xxx~~ ~~xxx~~ shoes. Vujnovic

- Stripe = ske composed of three parts
- commune public
- C.E.O = chief executive officer
- ~~ike~~ After more athletic success Puma established wholly subsidiary
- The brand = is a part of trade mark
- They linked with sport and fashion, they started from Puma in Hollywood movies
- to launch = début

Scote Brother

1) PUMA
- 1948: Rudolf Dasler: seperet from his brother company
- start by producing shoes.
* pelly wear puma shoes. brazilian: in olempit. d
- 1970s: seccess with tekis shoes d
- 1981 american footballers wearing puma shoes d
- 1986 it become a famous: & expand towards Munich & Frankfurt
* inovation in shoes products : (Trinomic) , puss system shoes (CEO) d
                                                          chief ↕ exicative officer
- CEO 1993 : help puma to be seccessive. d

1998: Puma & Jil Sander : corporat to have a collection :
                    ↓
               Disiner.

- 2000 puma lanch : it website: After it start to design
  clothes & shoes for Businessman
- The shoes are (snap up) by The fashion consicous person

Puma

- in 1948, Rudolf Dasler left his brother's company athletes to start his own.

- it was a shoes company then after a success they become a leader partnership.

- Pellay putting Puma shoes → epic of success.
  in the world cup and Olympic
        games.

- 1970s, tennis shoes → another success.

- 1981, American football players → start to wear Puma shoes.
- Mouting and Navratilova Wimbledon tournament → wearing " "

- 1986 → it extends in all Europ not only in Munikh and Frankfort where they store their products.

- enovation in shoes → trinomic.
                      → Disc System

- CEO → chief exceuty officer → when Puma company oppointed a CEO in 1993, it begans to gain profit
- the subsidiary company is in America.
- a cooperation in 1998 → Puma and Dill Sander → they launched a fashion.   [fashion]

- in 2000 → started to work online → successful in one year by selling using Website.

- Shoes and clothes → for bussiness man.
- Very popular,
  fashion consious people snapped up the products.

Puma

1948 Rudolf Dassler set up his own Company Puma.
1   Creation shoe company
          Further successor with clubs (Professional).
          with Pele² (brasilian player) Olympic game and
          world cup ³ (shoes of puma).
1970 →   Tennis Shoes (success) ⁴
1981 →   American football stars usi Started Using
Puma Shoes.

Tennis Stars won using Puma Shoes.
1986 →   Puma → was extended to all Europe.
          (munich, Frankfort) 5

Puma → introduced innovation in shoe design
appointed   "Trinomic" Disc System ⁴ Shoes.
Puma → C.E.O → Chief Executive Officer (1993)
          → year After → Puma made huge success
Puma → established subsidiaries in North America
                → corporation with Fashion designer (1998)
                          "(jil sander)
          Collection between shoes and Fashion

2000 → launched a web site. Puma.com

ADIDAS

- Adi Dasler
[1920 The first shoe was produced
└→ was very passionate

Mid 1930 ⟹ 3 different Kinds of shoes = for 11 sports.
          ⟹ 100 employes

1948 ADi gave the name ADIDAS to his company

1949 The three stripes were produced as a logo
of the company

It faced some problems

In 1990 The new CEO helped Adidas to be more successful

In 1996 60 000 Athlets in the olympic were
wearing Adidas shoes ⟹ increas with (50%) ↗

ore): main / major   endorsed: supported

Adidas:

- 1920 → by Adi Dassler → his 1st shoe.
- a passionate athlete / he do his job in person.
- in the mid 1930s → Adi made 30 different shoes for 11 sports an
  He had 1000 employees.
-
- in 1941 → introduce Adidas as the name of the company.
- in 1949 → introduce the 3 stripes
- the core product → Athletic shoes.
- the logo (///) can be found in socks, clothes etc.
- like any company → Adidas had problems to survive
  because of the competition → it shifts to Asia and
  extends its budget.
- Adidas was always a _____ when they had a CEO in 1950s
  its production was successful. (shoes only)
- in 1985 → it went public in Frankfort and Paris.
- in 1996 → equipt more than 60.000 athletes in the Olympic game
  so 50% more success because of this.
- in 1997 → significant event → Saloman Group → they group toget

and make Adidas Saloman Company. the Arabic
                                    proper name. Sky and gulf
                                                  equipments

- Many famous people endorsed it. .
- Adidas Saloman extends.

after 2000 (+) Puma started (+) design clothes and shoes
for business men.

Puma Products are (snapped up) by fashion conxious people

Adidas

1920 → First Adidas shoe. (Adi Dasler)
(Nurimberg).   ↕ 10 years.

mid 1930 → Adidas → 30 (£) shoes → 11 Sports.
                              type

101 employees.

1948 → Introduces the A "Adidas" name to his Company

1949 →   ¿   ←   3 (stripes)

n) (core) products were Athletic Shoes.
        you can Find /// in Clothe, Sun glasses.

Shifting to Aisa → extended their badget

1990 (Adidas had s kind of (CEO).
              ¿ sucess Concerning shoes.

90s → Puma had Shoes and cloths.
      ↳ Adidas had only Shoes

95   A   went public.   (Frankfort, Paris).
996 → equiped 60 000 at least in the Olympic games.
                      Athletes
s of 50% more sucess. (sales).
97 2 A = acquired an other Companies "Saloman group"
            Adidas Salomon   Sky and Golf equipem

* Adidas:
- 1920: Adidasler produce his 1st shoes. in hurmberg in germany
- passionate Athlite
   Mid 1930s he produce 30 different shoes 4 different sports
- he had 100 Emplaces. Work force
   1948 : introduce Adidas give The name to his company
- 1949 : introduces The 3 (stripes) C. bande
- (core) product: Athletic shoes
- have pbms : but. shifts. to. Asia.
+ The have CEO so The production becomes successible. in 1990
adidas produce only shoes ulike. puma .
+ 1995 The product of. adidas in Frankfurt, paris
   1996: equiped. more. Than 600 oo athlets were wearing adidasshoes
That Why it. has an increase in saling by 50%
- 1997. Adidas[saloman]: cooperation
               ↳
            sky, galf.
            equipment

puma | Pjism | . Its feed up?

2000 Puma lunched puma . com . (puma) It started to make well
known designer to bind between puma. and fashion.
- It lunched foot~wear = shoes~ and clothing for business.
- Puma products are very popular, there products are sousource.
  (snap-up = " taking very quickly.
- fashion conscious - people.

coldsmoitshing = when you speak you move from an language of to
another .
_____

. 2) Adidas :
the founder of adidas is Adi Dassler, he made his first shoe in 19
in his workshop in Nurenburg in Germany in 1920.   1920
he was
~passionate (man) athlete, he was always present its a person at important
Sport's world event. In the mid 1930s adi dassler was making different
shoes for eleven sports. Adidas had many employees and it had
work force: the powerful of a company that has.

1948   he introduced adidas as the name of a company.
m 1949 (year later), he ~~You~~ ~~digested~~   they put three stripes to produce it.
                                          ─ ─?
- the main adidas production is Athletic shoes.
- It company encountered many problem of surviving in fast moving market.
- the come back by shifting production from Europe to Asia.
- It had always a manifacturing (It produces), and soles.
- when Robert become the C.I.O of the company. It changed into a
marketing company. they started to give a kind of a ~~name~~ brand to make
an impressive company.

APPENDIX VI

Sample of Students' Performances in Essays

- **Obesity**

- **SAD**

- **Our Daily Tutor**

- **Two Web Sites**

- **Puma and Adidas**

Obesity

Cause / effect essay

Obesity.

Health care must be the first needs that everyone does [...]
it plays a major role in our life, and it cost expensively. Althou[...]
lot of people are suffering from health problems as obesity. O[...]
the most common illness in those decades has a various causes th[...]
to a terrible effects.

Nowadays, Science shows and analyse different causes [...]
obese such as the genetic roots from parents. Acess of weight [...]
than 20% of ideal weight. Eating too much espicially at nig[...]
a hand, and less exercices and practices in another hand. Swee[...]
unhealth sugar and food are also play a big role as causes to l[...]
Obesity. In 200x studies showed that children from 08-to-[...]
whave an exessive addiction in watching TV, play movies, an[...]
long hours in front of computer are plus reasons to get ill.

This serious medical problems which become scares each[...]
led to a lot of disease and effects.

As one result that come across obesity is more weight [...]
influence on the (estitic) estithic side of the body. One another [...]
concerning with people who are risk of diabities. Obese wom[...]
affected on fertility and become meture sexualy more O[...]
also is affected by obesity, and a lot of time devlopima cance[...]
are supposed without forgetting that heart disease and men[...]
head are two danger results because of the illness.

Obesity is a big illness and problem that must be treated becu[...]
the most causes and its effects are known.

Obesity is scientifically known as an increase in body w...

) more than 20%. It is a widespread phenomenon that has...

reasons but serious effects.

Eating a lot without enough physical exercices leads

immediatly to the increase in body weight because the amount...

food we consumed will be more than what our body needs, a...

extra amount of food will stored in the body causing obesity...

as a result, many diseases like blocked arteries, and dial...

This latter is caused when there is too much sugar in someone...

Consuming unhealthy food including sugary food is totally b...

since it contains some added substances like sweetners that ca...

damage our body

Knowing about the dangerous effects of obesity, it is better...

everybody to control their eating habits, practicing sport, in ...

to consult the doctor regulary to have an idea about our healt...

There are common deases seem to us that they are
erious. But in fact, this is wrong, because even if they
like that in reality, they are contain very hard aff
such as obese. This desease has reasons which make
quiet spread, more over fast effects.

The first reason and a common one is eating a lot of
with diffrent kind. Eating every time without respect th
of meals, specially for (offspring). In addition not to try
sport. This habit makes our bodies obtain increasin
which we are not meed to, and this will lead to other
such as diobet, blood pressure.

obese has auther reason which is eating (sugary) food.
affect on body in negative way. They will make it can not
functions. for example, the women who are suffering from
they became not fertitity which mean, they con not give b
children

. There are some of people die of sweetness food, and they ca
live without. They think that they should eat those food,
when they eat them they will feel happy and they get rid of
Forthd, they do not think of effects which create to them a
problems, those problems will spoil their life by prevent t
eat, even the healthy food, because their health is really
because of obese.

Topic: Obesity - causes and effects

Obesity is the increase of the body's weight, it becomes
common health problem this era. Because of different reasons
advanced and becomes harmful sometimes, it arranges danger
effects.

On one hand we have many causes of this illness; Genetic ones
inheritated from parents so the one comes to life and finds himself
without any interference from his part. But we have also the opp
case those who eat a lot or miss choose what they eat, having
food like junk food & candies and fast food, here they are not
it guilty because they are the cause of their disease. Besides
lack of physical activities: sports, walking ...etc, and spending
long time watching tv or playing video games. All those pre
-causes leads to serious effects.

On the otherhand we have the consequent of obesity which
se physical or psychological, One who is obese may has m
psychological proplems like shyness, they feel that they are
and they want to hid their selves they become lonly and it e
with making the complexed persons. Obesity rises the ri
having more medical problems like heart diseases - ca
and high blood pressure, in addition to the statistic th
that 90% of those who have type 2 of obesit diab
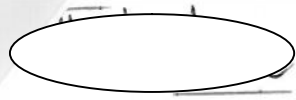
obesity is a phenomeney which spreed in m̶
countries around the world. Obesity is the access averag
fatness, this latter leads to many causes and disease

obesity is traditional increase 20%, Today is
measured on height and weight as well as it has ma
reasons such as: eating too much then exercises less, a little.
another reason is eating too much (sugary), fast food a
(sweetners) insted of eating healthy food and vegetables.
ddition to that, obesity have a relation with a genetic
structure, Scientistes said that If a fat woman is pregnan
her (offspring) will be face the same problem of his/her m̶
moreover children who watching TV and playing game vide
and spending a long time, they will suffer from desity
at early age.

obesity also has it's consequences which are in sho
comming. obesity leads to many disease. For instance heart di
the increasing of level of chalesterol in blood, death of a
also it leads to the developing of cancer, besides another ef
which is the most dangerouse is Diabete "type 1 and type

SAD

Summary:

Sadness or seasonal affective disorder, It is considered a serious problem in Scandinavian countries, That's why doctors give it importance and try to list different causes and effects in order provide solutions.

The seasonal affective disorder is related to the arrival of winter. When people are exposed to less (sunlight) amount of s that effects the production of the hormons: siratolen and miled which ensures weight gain, anxiety, (lethergy), and may also leads to So the doctors try to find solution to this problem, by prop that the patient should be exposed to a sepicial light whi replace the sunlight. The statestics shows that this disease highly spread in Scandinavian countries because of the not climat there.

ensue
lethargy.

SAD

Seasional Affective Disorder is a disease when winter arrives an people get sad.

The desease started when the sun is absent and there is no su that affect the produce of Sirotone and which ensure the body desease spred among the Skandenavian countries such as N Swedden. In result anxiety and over sleeping cause many of offects like when you sleep too munch you can be suffer from o and obesity.

To conclude, Doctors were started to get solutions to disre Seasional Affective Deasease.

sadness is a group of emotions which are felt. The
emotions make a person unhappy about the situation which
lived. In addition to loose the diser of misc with p
because of this psychological case. This latter has
which lead to away hard effects.
There are some people take the weather as a reason
happy or not. Which mean that the disappear of light affec
to be sad without any good reason. This phenomenon has
relation with a man psychological. people take a sun ligh
as future hope and authers keep their fingers acrosed f
that day. But if the weather is rainy, this will affec
people in bad way which make them sad, depress and a

The body of man has so many hermon, there are some
those hermons affect man to be sad such melatonine
increase when the person is sad. This increasy lead
man to be sad, lethargy and escastes all the time.
sad is very normal psychological case which is felt
by man. This case is ensure i.e it happen imes imme
after something without any moring.

lethargy.

Life is a strange mixture of joys and sorrows. It is about go...
...rough bad and good moments. Today we are happy, tomorrow we can be sad...
...me people nowadays live with sadness which means suffering in silence...
...d person who is always silent, he can't express his feelings and emotions...
...eeping them inside. There are many reasons and results of sadness.

Many people suffer from sadness. There are some who have heart b...
...hey have problems at work, they have fought with a dear person...
...him. They may have also social problems like the quarrel at home...
...divorce... etc. Or they live in very bad conditions. There are others who are...
...by the atmosphere; their minds are completely changed with the mood...
...when winter arrives, some people become sad because of a lack of seroto...
...it is a chemical thing which works with the nervous system. It comes f...
...en that makes a person feels calm and happy.

Sadness can manifest itself through emotions like being angry, star...
...nd nervous. The poor people can become very deffensive as a result...
...orious crimes outside home. For people who have lost someone or some...
...always weep, shout or do any strange jesters like hurting themselve...
...n close surround or sleeping all the time, this makes a person lazy, no...
...ethargy and unhappy. Moreover, the impact of the weather in peopl...
...ause a depression and irritability for them as a consequence their...
...hey start thinking in negative thoughts and may be they will be...

sisonal Affective disorder or what we call SAD
it is a state that represent the changement of ower mode
acording to sesons; if the weather is sunny some of us
turn happy but if it is the oposit they tern sad and
become deprest. this changement is controled by the
balance of hormones in ower bodies.

this disorder is ensuing in balance of a hormone
called minatonin in the mind of the person and the
chemical seratonin in the nervous systeme, this
make us utterly exosted and we may sofer from
lethagy.

the changemen in the balance of this hormones
and chemical Affect   on ower mode or temper
and make a depretion that have a lot signes
depending on personnalities of people but the most
comon on is over sleeping; hear the person go to his
bed   and he try not to realy to sleep but to hid him
self and stop his mind of thinking in his problems.

Our Daily Tutor

People get information from diverse sources either written or spoken and this depends on the way how people prefere to get the information. They usually use newspaper so that these latters are called "the daily tutor". It is specific to newspapers that makes them the most useful way by people to be informed.

There are many causes that push people to read newspapers. They become better citizens since they get informed about what is happening around them. Their benifit can be local by learning about what is happening inside their country in terms of social development, economical improvement, provision of information to understand well our environment and what is happening around us. Newspapers help our town to have an identity and let us informed of news about marriage, teams and death. Newspapers keep us in touch with the smallest events occuring in our society, they provide a vivid conexion with our Community.

Moreover an external benifit is here by learning about the development around the would in all domains. The good or the bad relationship between countries and the conflicts in the same country or between different ones. They envolve our awarness about weapons and nuclear researches and advancement. The eruption of events all over the would which can be harmful to people and the planet. We may also find articles about El Niño.

Most we read newspapers most we will have much information, vis is called a data bank. Newspapers keep us abreast of what is happening other inside or outside our countries. They are a good source to provide us with a background information.
good

Two Web Sites

Nowadays, Internet become a necessary thing in all fields of life. The social media have big role in facilitating the connection between people. Web site is considered as tool of marketing and slander for many product and channel unlimited Wheels and Hills cycles are two bikes websites they have different ways of presenting their webs.

Wheels Unlimited has different content comparison with Hills cycles. Wheels has more a lot pages than Hills cycle. Also in prices wheels have got them next to the picture however Hills show them in separate page. Wheels has different accessories, Alt advertises of other products such as many helmet, cloths and tools. But Hills show just the bikes

Hills cycle shows the history of company from the photo of the original shop with a paragraph and it's a family owned. However, Wheels Unlimited does not show any for the ordering of production, Hills cycle uses the send off for paper of catalogue with one order form when Wheels Unlimited has facility for online ordering or the conventional ways. Both companies have attractive pictures, but Wheels Unlimited has not got any more graphique. But Hills cycles has got an animated cartoon at the top of Home page.

The two bikes websites Wheels and Hills have special charactericts attributed in their spread and

Comparison betwen hills cycl
and wheels unlimited

hills cycle and wheels unlimited are tw
websites where each one want to advertis
his Product.

First we are going to talk about the h
of the company. a hills shows a Photo oF t
original shop, it is a Family owned but w
unlimited does not show any thing

Second the content oF the two bi
websites is as Follows: wheels unlimited has
a lot oF Pages than hills cycles and concer
the Prices the hills cycles have got them ne
the Pictures however wheels unlimited whow
on a separate Page.

third the wheels unlimited advertise
lot of other Products like helmets, cloth
and tools, but hills cycles shows just th
bikes

Fourth wheels unlimited has a Faci
For online ordering or the conventional wa
but the hills cycles uses the sending off
Paper catalogue with an order Form.

FiFth both have attractive Pictu
but wheels unlimited has not got any moving
graphic but hills cycles has got an anim

Hills cycles ,and wheels Unlimited are two websi
where each one want to advertise his products

First we talk about the history of the company.
Hills cycles shows a photo of the original shop with a
photograph, it is a family owned contrary to wheels
Unlimited it doesn't show anything, where as the seco
one has a lot more pages than the first one

When we move to the prices = Hills cycles have got
them next to the pictures while wheels Unlimited show the
on a seperate page ; and this latter advertises lots of
other products like = (hemlets), clothes, and tools ,otherwise
Hills cycles show just the bikes

Also, when we look for the ~~convertable the ways~~ adering for product wheels Unlimited
has a (facility) for the (conventional) ways, where as Hills ly
uses the (sending off) for paper catalogue with an order fo

At the end, both have attractive pictures , but wheels Unlim
hasn't got any ~~moving~~ animated cartoon at the top of the home p

Finally, wheels Unlimited has more advantages th
Hills Cycles

we live in society, there is many way of communica
which other fully, theses tools has a different shapes
some of them used for far places such as bycycles
this latter is composed from what is means by whe
which is can be consider as a heart of cycle, be
if they are help each other.

the main differences between them for escampl
wheels unlimited has a lot of more pages than Hills
this is about the content, but the prices Hills cycle
have got them next to the pictures and weels un
show them on a seperate page, when we talk about
the accessories wheels unlimited advertises lots of ot
products like helmets, clother and tools, but Hill
unlimited show just the biks, History of the compa
Hills cycles shows a plato of the original shop
with a paragraph, it is a family owned but whe
Unlimited does not show anything, ordering for
products wheels unlimited has a facility for t
conventional ways (sometimes boring) but Hills
uses the sending off for paper catalogue with an
order form, Moving graphics the both have al
pictures but wheels unlimited has not got any
moving graphique but Hills cycles has g
an animated cartoon at the top of the home p
As a conclusion, I find that are the
they are different in some side and simm

In a field of fashion connection, there are so m...
...bsites which are service their visiters. In this fie...
...here are tou websites which are hills cycles and whee...
...hey are superficially similar, but they still have diffe...

content accessories and ordening the product are j...
...hree differences could be cited between the tou web...
...heels unlimited has more page that Hill cycles has go...
...he prices nesct to the produce, whereas wheels un...
...was them on a reparte paper

The accessocries are another difference between hill...
...ycles and wheels unlimited company advertises lots of...
...roducts like helmets clothes and tools, whereas hills ...
...hows and buys just the likes themselves

wheels unlimited has a facility for online ordering...
...u the conventional ways, whereas Hills cycles uses...
...e sending off for paper catalogue with an order form.

Even so, they have differences, they are websites, th...
...have to have some similarities.

ADIDAS and PUMA

adidas

Adidas is a large company, it has a great history which deserves to be discussed. In 1920 Adi Dasler has created his first shoes and that was the start of this company, but he In 1948, Adidas was created as a name for Adi's company. One year after that which means 1949, he has introduced the three (strips) as a sign mar The Adidas company has focused on the Athletic shoes which was the (Core) products.

Adolf invested a huge amount of effort to make his adidas company popular that is why the company has changed the (CEO) in 1990 and that was a new step in the development of the company but at the same time, it has kept producing shoes.

In 1995, Adidas has enlarged it's business, it's bra was found in Paris and Frankfurt.

In 1996, 60000 Athlets was wearing Adidas shoes which has made an increase of 50% but the significic moment in the history of this company was "Salomon Adidas", that was really helpful for Adidas to be more developed, because they has started a new protect which was the ski and golf equipement.

Adidas has tryed to help athlets to achieve significo results and famous people liked Adidas such as Platini, Zidane, Mohamed Ali.

This was the great history of Adidas Company.

Sole Brothers : Puma / Adidas.

Among all the international companies, Adidas and Puma
are the most famous trade marks and shoes' companies all over the w[orld]
Those companies had a long history full of innovation, hard work,
success, this is which make them special and different from other tr[ade]
marks.

Similarly, both companies were founded by members of the
Dassler family; where Adidas was named after its owner "Adi Da[ssler]
and his brother. They were successfull producers of sports shoes wh[ere]
they have had their products worn and endorsed by famous sports st[ars]
and they found success with providing sho[es]
olympic game.
In addition to that both companies are listed on the Frankfurt stock [exchange]
Those famous companies found success a change of direction after ne[w]
CEO, were appointed, besides they kept sports shoes as their core pro[ducts]
but they have expanded into clothing and fashion goods. As nothing stay[s]
it is, both companies have had problems Adidas in the early day and P[uma]
after it went public, this is lead to their separation and being differen[t]
and separate companies.

As a result to their separation, Adidas is listed on the Paris stoc[k]
exchange, whereas puma is listed on the Munich stock exchange. Afte[r]
the problems Adidas company has made an acquisition with Salomon
and changed its name. Unlikely, Puma has remained a manufacturing
Sales company while Adidas has changed into a marketing company an[d]

Puma and Adidas

There is a lot of market of cloths, shoes and different peic[...]
buying and saling in the world. But the most famous markes in the wo[...]
the best sales are puma and Adidas; however, in the world there is alwa[...]
winer, so which one is the best: puma or Adidas?

puma is a famous market it success started in the 1970's with success[...]
shoes, in 1981 all the people wear puma peices, inaditibn great number[...]
ball stars wore puma shoes. Than puma establish it's company in No[...]
as wholly own subsidary. In 1986 puma start an inevation shoes[...]
kind of trinomic shoes; In 1998 puma linked between fashion. an[...]
and make a kind of colection. After one year of success. — 2000 —[...]
lanshed a web-site www.puma.coma; then it became famous a[...]
start cooperate with famous companies and design for famous people[...]
.But is this enough to make puma the best one. but before gave it[...]
of best market we have to see Adidas first.

Adidas Saloman was very passionate athlete, he was present in p[...]
all important sport events. In the mid 1930's he create 30 dy[...]
for 11 sports, i.e;... basketball; handball... etc, and had work fo[...]
employees. In 1948 he introduced the company as adidas; in 19 4[...]
the trade marke ‖‖‖‖‖‖‖‖‖ 787854312001 . For Adidas; sport shoes for tennis; hand[...]
the main product, they gave a logo in glasses, teeshorts etc. It ha[...]
of surviving in falt moving Markets but it made the comeback by[...]

In the field of fashion, there so many comp[anies]
which are compete with each other. In this field
there are two very famous companies which are
Adidas and Puma, they control the global market
Because, they are to popular, they have plenty
of similarities and differences, we will present the[m]
as follows.

The Both companies are founded by member o[f]
Dassler family. These two companies are successful
producers of sports shoes and both companies have
had their products won and (endorsed) by famous sp[orts]
stars. The two companies found success with providi[ng]
shoe for the olympic games. Both companies also f[ound]
success and change of derection after new (CEDs) we[re]
appointed. Both of them are expanding world wide
in addition to have kept sports shoes as their (core) p[roducts]
but have expanded into clothing and fashion goo[ds]
Family, both of them have had problems: Adidas [in]
the early do and Puma after it went public.

However, they have so many similarities, also they
also differences which make them different from
each other
        . Adidas is listed on the pris stock exchange
whereas Puma is listed on the Munich stock exc[hange]

Puma and Adidas are two famous companies in the world of fashion and especially in industry of sport clothes and equipm

Adidas was the mother companie, and then one of the brothe left the companie and made his own companie which momed a Puma in 1948. Adidas made a success with Athlets as like Puma did they were a partner ship to many sports. In the middle 1930 Adidas was making 30 different shoes for 11 sports and work force for 100 e alike Puma has top success when Pele weared the 1st football shoe. introduced the three stripes shoes resemble with Puma in the succe of tennis shoes and the tennis stars wearing its like Now ate and Becker.

In opposition, Adidas moved to Asia and expend the budges w helped the products to spread in the area, but Puma made a nation in Munich and Frankfurt (give stock). on the other han Puma design many innovations (Trinomic, Disc system shoes) an Core Products of Adidas was shoes. In 1993 Puma had pointed chief Excutive officer and push it really achieve success. while P convected with Fashion designer TilSand, and he made a collecti between clothes and shoes (launch), Adidas occupied more than Athletes in the Olympic Games which made and increase of cl by 50 percent.

Many famous people were endorsed Adidas

To sum up; Puma and Adidas endorsed by people around world by their products which make them a bigge companies, especially in the shoes products.

Résumé

Cette recherche a pour but d'analyser l'importance de la prise de notes et la compréhension orale des étudiants en expression écrite et l'acquisition de vocabulaire. La thèse est composée de six chapitres : trois théoriques et trois pratiques. Dans les trois premiers chapitres, on discute les différents aspects concernant le vocabulaire : les approches, les méthodes et aussi la différence entre l'acquisition du vocabulaire intensive et extensive. Le deuxième chapitre discute les différentes techniques qui ont une relation avec la compétence d'écoute et la différence entre écouter avec attention et entendre des voix. Dans le troisième chapitre, on discute la définition de la prise de notes et les différentes méthodes. Dans la partie pratique, on a essayé de tester le degré et l'importance de la compétence de l'écoute et celle de la prise de notes sur la performance des étudiants et leur acquisition du nouveau vocabulaire. On a administré un questionnaire au début de la recherche qui a apporté des éléments qui enrichissent la partie expérimentale. Après le questionnaire, on a adressé un test (le pré-test) qui est composé d'un texte lu aux étudiants qui ont en même temps pris de notes de ce qu'ils ont écouté. Les résultats ont prouvé que les étudiants ont vraiment un manque dans la prise de notes, ce qui provoque des problèmes au niveau de leur productions en classe ou bien aux examens. Dans le post-test, on a essayé de donner les étudiants les différents techniques de la prise de notes et comment ils fassent pour différentier entre les idées majeures et celles qui sont mineures. A la fin, on a prouvé que la compétence d'écoute et la première étape pour bien prendre des notes suffisantes. Deuxièmement, les étudiants qui prennent des notes ont la possibilité de prendre quelques nouveaux mots et enrichir leur bagage langagier.

Mots clés : prise de notes, compréhension de l'écoute, l'acquisition de vocabulaire, stratégies d'apprendre.

الملخص

إن هذا البحث يهدف إلى اختبار التركيبة المتكونة من المتغيرات الثلاثة الآتية مهارات الإصغاء و اخذ رؤوس أقلام حين الاستماع و كذلك تعلم مفردات جديدة أثناء الدروس يتكون هذا البحث من ستة فصول كل حسب المعطيات السابقة. لإمكانية وجود رابط وثيق بين المتغيرات الثلاثة. ولضمان ذلك يعتمد هذا الفصل الأول والذي يهدف إلى تعريف البحث على ستة فصول ثلاثة منها نظرية والأخرى تطبيقية السمع والاستماع والفرق بينها ؛ وكذلك تطور هذه الخاصية عبر تطور اللغة الثانية أو الأجنبية ، أما الفصل الثاني فيقوم على أساس المفردات واكتسابها ، كما يقدم الفرق بين المفردات النشطة والتي نعرفها ونستخدمها ، بينما المفردات الخامدة وهي التي نعرفها ولكن لا نستخدمها ، بينما يقوم الفصل الثالث والأخير في القسم النظري على كيفية أخذ رؤوس أقلام التي تعود الكثير التكلم عنها عند القراءة بينما يهدف هذا البحث إلى تفعيلها حين شرح الدروس ، من خلال هذا البحث نتعرف على عدة أنواع من رؤوس الأقلام كالنوع العمودي أين يقوم الطلاب بوضعها واحدة تلو الأخرى بدون أي رسم أو تخطيط مسبق ، أما القسم التطبيقي فيهدف إلى إثبات الفرضيتين أو العكس وذلك بانجاز استقناء على طلبة الصف الثاني قسم اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة قسنطينة بعد معاينة الاستبيان والذي خلص إلى مجموعة من النقاط والتي في مجملها حول إجماع الطلبة إلى أن المفردات شرط أساسي في تعلم أي لغة وكذلك الاستماع الجيد والذي يقوم بدوره أيضا في اخذ نقاط جيدة ، بينما يهدف الفصل الثاني تأكيد الصيغة الموضوعة من قبل قمنا بانجاز خمسة نصوص الأول منها و يهدف إلى تشخيص المشكلة والتي تتمثل في مشاكل الطلبة في السمع الجيد وعدم اعتمادهم على الكلمات المنبهة للعثور على الأفكار الرئيسية وكذلك الأفكار الجزئية ، ثم بعد ذلك مشكلة الطلبة في اخذ رؤوس أقلام باستخدام المختصرات والرموز وذلك لربح الوقت ،بينما جل الطلبة يضعون رؤوس الأقلام في منزلة الإملاء ، بعد عدة نصوص تدرب الطلبة على السمع الجيد وكذلك اعتمادهم على الكلمات المنبهة وكذلك كيفية اخذ رؤوس أقلام وأيضا توظيف المفردات المقدمة من طرف الأساتذة في المواد الأخرى لبناء فقرات في مادة التعبير الكتابي

الكلمات المفتاحية: أخذ رؤوس أقلام ,السمع الجيد ,تقنية التعليم,تعلم مفردات جديدة