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**The Impact of Cultural Knowledge on Listening Comprehension: A Case
Study of English Undergraduate Second Year LMD Students at Sétif 2
University.**

Thesis Submitted in Candidacy for the Degree of “Doctorat Es-Sciences” In Teaching English
as a Foreign Language

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Abstract

Culture-language relationship has led to numerous debates on its role in English skills learning proficiency, particularly listening comprehension in different non-native speaking countries. The current research aims at examining the impact of cultural background knowledge on listening comprehension. The case study selected using non-probability sampling is second-year English as foreign language (EFL) students at setif-2 University. A sample of 41 is divided into two groups, an experimental group (20) and a control group (21). Adopting a quasi-experimental design, the experimental group is taught using a culturally oriented syllabus for two semesters while the control group received no treatment. To observe the level of culture gained and the impact of the treatment received on listening comprehension, participants from both groups are assigned cultural intelligence scale questionnaire and IELTS listening tests in a form of pre-and post-tests. Data obtained are analyzed via the SPSS. The findings reveal that the effect of the experiment is significantly marked ($\eta^2=0.73$). Comparing the results of the cultural level test, the experimental group level is higher after the treatment. Also, participants from the experimental group scored higher in the IELTS post-test. That is, the mean value is statistically significant in EG groups themselves (mean difference = 22) and between the CG (mean= 27.40) and EG (mean= 35.14). By the end, participants were satisfied with the integration of cultural content and its positive impact on their listening comprehension achievement. Based on these results, the integration of a culturally-based syllabus is recommended in the teaching of listening comprehension in English as a foreign language classrooms.

Key words: EFL Learners, Cultural Knowledge, Listening Comprehension.

Dedication

I dedicate this work to my lovely parents.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

CG: Control Group

CQS: Cultural Quotient Scale

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EG: Experimental Group

FGD: Focus Group Discussion

FL: Foreign Language

LC: Listening Comprehension

OE: Oral Expression

General Introduction

General Introduction

1. Theoretical Background

Foreign and second language teaching education continuously searches for better and more effective ways and methods to facilitate the learning process and achieve full mastery of the language. Nevertheless, teaching a foreign language has been proven to be a challenging matter and complex activity. Teachers are required to take into account all aspects of language that lead to the learners' proficiency level. One aspect teachers generally escape is the teaching of culture in EFL classrooms. Lafayette (1988) commented that one thing generally teachers overlook is the non-linguistic aspect of language, particularly culture. He mentioned that teachers spent the greatest amount of time and effort on teaching grammatical and lexical components of the language, leaving culture as the weakest component in the curriculum. Consequently, learners who do have access to the target language culture are more likely to misunderstand texts and authentic materials of that language.

The main purpose of learning English as a Foreign Language is comprehension. Listening comprehension is one of the major four skills of the English language. Nunan (1998) counts listening as the most basic skill in teaching and learning and contends that without listening, learners will never learn to communicate effectively. Despite its importance, EFL teachers tend to focus greatly on teaching language forms and syntactic structures rather than listening skills. Therefore, understanding the listing material given is a challenge for many learners. One of the reasons is not only the lack of practice but also the lack of sufficient cultural background knowledge of the target language (Hayati, 2009).

It cannot be denied that teaching culture plays an important role in language teaching. Indeed, research has shown that language and culture are closely related (Schuz, 2007; Brown, 2007). According to Brown (1994), culture plays a significant role in language

learning as culture and language are inseparable. Kramersch (1998) further emphasized the fact that “language, as a code, reflects cultural preoccupation and constrains the way people think” (p.14). Having mentioned the inevitable bound between language and culture, language teaching/learning has been concerned with only developing linguistic abilities. Therefore, apart from the linguistic component of the language, cultural knowledge is a basis for language proficiency as well.

Now, teaching syntactic structures and new vocabulary and expressions is insufficient, teaching a foreign language requires the incorporation of cultural elements and pragmatics and sociolinguistic meanings related to the target language. To support, Ali et al., (2015) state that several language programs focus on the development of skills, i.e. (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) but the teaching of cultural context has not been introduced in any of the language learning programs. Thereby, learners lack the necessary cultural knowledge that enables them to deeply understand authentic materials and be effective communicators in English. In this regard, Singhal (1998) maintains that teachers must have the necessary knowledge of the culture of the target language so that he/she be able to smoothly and accurately present it inside the classroom.

Culture- language relationship has led to numerous debates on its role in English skills learning proficiency, particularly listening comprehension in different non-native speaking countries (Al-Khrehseh, 2020). In the case of Algeria, foreign language teachers seem to ignore foreign cultural instruction or they may not have deep knowledge of its importance or how to integrate it into teaching curricula and lesson plans. Learners encounter difficulties in understanding all authentic materials, not to mention listening ones (Keraghel and Benboulaid, 2021) Therefore, improving Algerian learners’ listening skills is a need of paramount importance. Any study conducted in this context can contribute to the theoretical or implementation of culture teaching to improve listening comprehension skills.

2. Statement of the Problem

It was the fashion that foreign language teachers prioritized the teaching of linguistic components of language over its cultural aspects. Most students have grammatical knowledge and a great deal of vocabulary, but they cannot use language properly in an actual context (Rivers, 1968 and Omaggio, 1986). The relationship between language and culture is dynamic and inevitable because language constitutes the primary vehicle by which a culture transmits its beliefs values and norms. That is, speaking a language means speaking culture (Kramsch, 1993). Yet, despite its importance, cultural teaching in the foreign language classroom is still a controversial matter among many language teachers worldwide.

The core objective of learning any foreign or second language is achieving the full mastery of the four skills. The acquisition of cultural background knowledge is necessary if not mandatory for this process. Learning about the target culture has gained attention in the foreign language learning/teaching process because it has proven to be of great contribution to the development of the four skills of language (reading, writing, listening, and speaking (Tomalin and Stempleski, 1993). Yet, despite FL learners' needs for the target culture being recognized, the practical application of teaching culture is still scarce, especially in the Algerian educational system.

At the Algerian higher education level and the level of Setif-2 university English department, in particular, English teachers report that learners find it difficult to master the English language. Indeed, the importance of the listening skill has been neglected in the program of English teaching in higher education in Algeria. It is not taught as an independent class but rather as part of the oral expression class.

In the problem diagnosis phase of the current research, an informal discussion with teachers was held to explore their perceptions of their students' cultural level and how can this

affect their listening comprehension skills. As a result, teachers confirm that most of the students have difficulties in listening comprehension and also acknowledged that their students have little knowledge of the target language culture. Also, teachers did not deny the relationship between listening difficulty and lack of cultural knowledge (most of the listening content is culturally loaded: they said). As for the students themselves, they were asked several questions about the research problem in a form of a focus group discussion. (see appendix C and D). They all agree that their knowledge of the English language culture is very little and further added that it may be the cause for the difficulty in understanding the listening text assigned to them.

Although the objectives of the OE course are set by the Algerian higher ministry of education in the Canevas, developing learners' listening comprehension along with providing cultural knowledge is not well emphasized. According to the findings from the teachers' informal discussion and the students' FGD, a syllabus that is culturally oriented is missing/ not taught directly in the Canevas and this can be the reason why students' achievements in listening comprehension are remarkably poor. So, to test these perceptions, an experimental study is needed. That is, the impact of a culturally loaded syllabus on students' listening comprehension has to be systematically and tested following scientific procedures and methodological framework.

3. Aims of the Study

The aim of the current study is twofold. First, it attempts to investigate the impact of cultural background knowledge on second-year English major students' listening comprehension at Setif-2 University. Second, this research aims at highlighting students' and teachers' perceptions of the use of culturally oriented syllabus in OE to improve listening comprehension.

4. Research Questions

Given the aims aforementioned of the current study, the following research questions are set:

1. To what extent can cultural background knowledge affect second year English students' listening comprehension?
2. What are the students and teachers' perception of the use of impact of cultural oriented syllabus on the listening comprehension skill?

5. Research Hypotheses

In compliance with the first research question, the next hypotheses are stated.

5.1 Null Hypothesis (H0)

“If second year English students have cultural background knowledge, there will be no statistically significant impact in the mean ranks on their listening comprehension post-test if EG group is compared to CG”

5.2 Alternative Hypothesis (H1)

“If second year English students have cultural background knowledge, there will a statistically significant impact in the mean ranks on their listening comprehension post-test if EG group is compared to CG”

6. Significance of the study

Various studies were conducted on the influence of culture on learning different skills. In Algeria, Studies on culture and listening comprehension were conducted separately such as cultural content analysis and listening comprehension strategies in different Algerian institutes. The impact of cultural knowledge on Algerian EFL learners' listening comprehension development has rarely been tested before in Algerian higher education EFL teaching if not discussed. Therefore, the absence of studies examining the relationship between culture and listening comprehension skills makes this study significant. Also, the

study is significant because the experiment results might have implications on pedagogy, sociolinguistics, and language teaching of English learning in Algeria. Considering that listening skill is somewhat by English educators and curriculum coordinators, this study may shed light on the fact that listening is the number one skill that should be given much priority. In addition, the findings of this study may raise language policymakers and curriculum coordinators to the importance of the direct integration of culture in the EFL curriculum as a more effective method to develop learners' listening comprehension skills.

7. Overview of Methodology

The ultimate goal of this research is to investigate the impact of cultural background knowledge on students' listening, which needed a quasi-experimental type of research. In doing so, a pre and post-test design were chosen for a sample (two groups: CG= 21, EG 20) of the second-year English major students at setif-2 university class 2019-2020. The whole study has three major phases, in which qualitative and quantitative data collection methods were employed. The first phase constitutes the pre-experimental, which is meant for exploring the research problem via using an informal discussion with six teachers and a focus group discussion with 10 students, ensuring the homogeneity of the research sample via placement test and cultural intelligence scale and distributing the pre-test. The second phase dedicated to the experiment deals with exposing the sample to the treatment designed for two semesters and then testing it with a post-test and the same cultural scale intelligence to test students' level of cultural knowledge after being exposed to the intervention. In the last phase, a perceptions questionnaire was distributed to explore the participants' perception of the treatment and the use of culturally loaded content to improve their listening comprehension skills.

8. Definitions of Terms

- **Culture:** According to Spencer-Oatey (2008) ‘culture is a fuzzy set of basic assumptions and values, orientations to life, beliefs, policies, procedures and behavioral conventions that are shared by a group of people, and that influence (but do not determine) each member’s behavior and his/her interpretations of the ‘meaning’ of other people’s behavior” (p.3). this means that culture is a configuration of learned behaviors and elements shared and transmitted by the members of a specific society (Linton, 1945).
- **The target culture:** Hesar et al. (2012) claim that target-language culture is the cultural elements of the targeted language that language foreign language teachers must implicitly and explicitly address inside the classroom. In the current study, the American and British cultures were the target culture.
- **Background knowledge** the terms background knowledge refers to what one simply knows about a subject ... Stevens (1980 , p.151). Similarly, Biemans and Simons, (1996) define background knowledge as “...all knowledge learners have when entering a learning environment that is potentially relevant for acquiring new knowledge.” (p.6). In this study, it is culture background knowledge which is put into consideration. In fact, it is the dependent variable of the research. Culture background knowledge includes prior information one has about of all aspects of culture that is values, customs, beliefs ... etc.
- **Listening comprehension:** Rost (2001) believes that this skill refers to the coordination or all the skill components and not only isolated units. That is, distinguishing sounds, words, and grammatical group of each word. He further adds that it is a process where the receiver tries to comprehend and construct the intended

meaning the sender is conveying. Listening comprehension is the independent variable in the current investigation.

9. Organization of the Thesis

To meet the research variables set and the experiment conducted, this thesis is organized as follows:

To start with, the general introduction is first mentioned which includes the theoretical background of the study, the statement of the problem, the aim of the study, the research questions and hypotheses, the significance of the study, an overview of the methodology used throughout the entire research and definitions of some key concepts.

Right after the general introduction, a detailed overview of the research variables is placed in three chapters to help better understand the research topic. The first chapter reviews the definition of language and culture and the relationship between them. It also refers to the different methods of teaching language throughout history and to what extent culture was integrated. Then, language teaching and culture is the second chapter. It states how culture is taught in foreign language classrooms. The last chapter of the literature review constitutes all the notions related to listening comprehension skills and the related studies with respect to cultural knowledge.

Afterward, the fourth chapter is devoted to the research methodology. It highlights the methodological framework followed. It identifies the research design adopted and the research setting is chosen. Also, the research sampling and the sampling techniques used are stated. Then, the chapter specifies the data collection and analysis procedures and the treatment phase in detail. Finally, it ends with the limitations and delimitations of the study.

As for Chapter five, it states data analysis, interpretations, and discussion.

Constituting the core part of the whole thesis, this chapter deals with the analysis of the results

obtained from the three stages of the experiment. Then, these findings are discussed and interpreted in compliance with the research questions and hypotheses and in reference to the review of literature already mentioned. At the end of the chapter, the implications of this study, its limitation, and recommendations for further research are clearly stated.

CHAPTER ONE

Language and Culture

Chapter One: Language and Culture

Introduction

The current investigation encompasses the relationship between cultural background knowledge and listening comprehension. So, a deep overview of these two variables is needed. In this chapter, the concept of language is introduced along with all its features and functions. Then, a review of language and culture relationship is placed after some conceptualizations of the term culture. The last part of this chapter involves how culture is integrated in language teaching throughout time.

1. 1 Language

Language is a broad topic. Etymologically, it is derived from the English word “language” derives ultimately from Proto-Indo-European "tongue, speech, language" through Latin *lingua*, "language; tongue", and Old French language (The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, 1992). Commonly, language is defined as a system of signs used for communication, thus whenever we speak about language communication is attributed. However, different attempts on human language have been suggested as there are different levels of thinking and approaches. The different definitions of language designate the level of reflection on language.

To start with, Robins (1971) stated that “Languages are infinitely extendable and modifiable according to the changing needs and conditions of the speakers” (p.13). That is, language is made of symbols that are randomly and conventionally selected when combined to form meaning. For example, the word ‘pen’ is purely arbitrary as there is no hereditary relationship between the symbols p.e.n and the object itself. Robins (1971) further added that words can gain new meanings over time and new ones are added according to the users’ needs. In other words, Language changes to the best satisfaction of its speech community.

In addition, Sapir (1921) claimed that language is “a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires employing a system of voluntarily produced symbols” (p.8). To illustrate, normal humans unlike animals possess a developed system of communication as a form of symbols. Sapir (1921) in his definition called for the non-instinctiveness of human language. That is, a child is not born with language; he/she has to learn it in the environment he/she is placed in.

In the same vein, Hall (1968) claimed that Language is “the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other utilizing habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols” (p.158). In this definition, language is primarily seen as a speech produced by oral-auditory symbols. A speaker’s oral sounds are conveyed through the air to the listener who, through his hearing organs, receives the sound waves and conveys these to the brain that gives these symbols meaning. Noam Chomsky (1957) put it differently, as language is “a set of finite or infinite each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements” (p.13). Chomsky (1957) indicates that each sentence is a structure in itself. We can construct various structures out of a restricted set of sounds and symbols of a specific language. The human brain is so productive that a child can at any time produce a sentence that has never been said or heard earlier.

All in all, different attempts to language definition reflect the different approaches and ideologies taken by scholars in the field. All try to give a clearer picture of what language is and add to the study of language a big deal. This level of thinking has expanded to become what we call today linguistics.

1.2 Linguistics

The study of language has gained much interest throughout history up till now. As a result, the field of linguistics arose. One of the simplest definitions of linguistics is that it is a scientific study of language (Halliday et al., 2006). David Crystal (1987) in his encyclopedia

defines linguistics as the “science of language” (p.412). It has also been defined as “The scientific inquiry into human language-- into its structures and uses and the relationship between them”(Finegan& Besnier, 1989, p. 8). Yet, despite the scholars’ call for the scientific approach to language, the study of language was not scientific from the beginning; it developed gradually as different approaches were suggested. Generally, the development in linguistics can be divided into three/ four phases: traditional grammar, structural linguistics, linguistics in the 1960s, and interdisciplinary fields of linguistics.

1.2.1 Traditional Grammar

Language study at the beginning of the 19th century, till the end of it, was non-scientific in perspective, known as traditional grammar. According to Williams (2005), "We say that traditional grammar is prescriptive because it focuses on the distinction between what some people do with language and what they *ought* to do with it, according to a pre-established standard. ... The chief goal of traditional grammar, therefore, is perpetuating a historical model of what supposedly constitutes proper language" (p.6). That is to say, it attempts to impose rules of a certain framework, which is Latin on the speakers of a language; speakers are told what ought and what ought not to speak. Moreover, TG’s main interests were syntax and the structure of the language, placing priority on rules rather than functions of communication. Prioritizing the written form over speech, traditional grammarians also look for prescribing rules to direct learners to use the correct form of language, to help them avoid mistakes; and to protect the language from corruption. Finally, traditional grammar principles entail subjectivity as forcing language into a model and judging it by the standards of another is biased and scientifically unsound.

1.2.2 Structural Linguistics

In 1916, the Swiss linguist Ferdinand De Saussure’s Course of General Linguistics shifted the way language was seen. His work gave way to structuralism, that is language is seen as a

structured system of systems. In structuralism, units (sounds, morphemes, sentences...) can be defined only by reference to their relationships to the other units in the same language (De Saussure, 1916). They are mutually defining entities; every unit is a point in a structure, and it has no significance by itself. Saussure further proposed his famous pairs of concepts referred to by dichotomies: diachronic/synchronic studies; langue/parole; signified /signifier; and syntagmatic/ paradigmatic relations. Following in Saussure's footsteps, different European scholars developed the structuralism principles, naming the Prague school, the London school, and to name a few.

In the United States, the term structuralism has somewhat the same sense as in Europe. The leading figures of the American structuralism were Franz Boas (1858-1942), Edward Sapir (1884-1939), and Leonard Bloomfield (1887-1949) who developed methods of structural (formal) sentence analysis. They focus on language form and neglect meaning to a subordinate place; phonology (the study of sound systems) and morphology (the study of word structure) are their primary fields of interest. American structuralists view language from a scientific descriptive perspective. Leo Bloomfield and his followers believe that the understanding of language should be objective and systematic with observable data, just like any natural science. They focus on analyzing the forms of language items and the way the items are arranged rather than in meaning. Meaning is neglected and considered as the weak point in language study because it is not observable (Bloomfield, 1933). To sum up, the European and American structuralist shift has paved the way to more non-prescriptive language analysis, viz. a scientific study of language.

1.2.3 Linguistics in the 1960s

From the 1950s onward, the concept of structuralism was criticized mainly by Chomsky (1957). A new model was suggested instead for the description of all languages called Transformational Generative Grammar. It aims at describing not only the corpus but

also the underlying system that lies in the speaker's mind. Language is infinite and creative and cannot be contained in an inclusive corpus (Chomsky, 1957). To illustrate, language was analyzed in terms of the surface structure (the syntactic structure of the sentence which a person speaks or hears: it is the observable form of the sentence.) and the deep structure (which is much more abstract and is considered to be in the speaker's mind). Hence, for Chomsky (1957), "A language is a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements."(p.13). To put it simply, Chomsky (1957) meant to convey that each sentence has a structure. The human brain is competent enough to construct different sentences from out of the limited set of sounds/symbols belonging to a particular language. The human brain is so productive that a child can at any time produce a sentence that has never been said or heard earlier.

1.2.4 Interdisciplinary Fields of Linguistics.

At the outset of the 20th century, language was no longer seen as a structure to be analyzed inclusively, but rather a social phenomenon. There has been immense attention on the study of language with relation to society, which means language in an actual context. Language –society relation is termed “sociolinguistics”. The interdisciplinary field of sociolinguistics is dated back to Labov’s pioneering work on the study of language in society in 1972. owing to the work of William Labov, a prominent voice in American linguistics since the early 1960s, who pioneered an approach to examine the relationship between language and society and initiated the field of variationist sociolinguistics. The principle in this field is that variation is inherent to linguistic structure. Language is used differently depending on the individuals and the situations surrounding them. This approach shows how language use is dependent on factors as gender, age, class, race and to name a few. Language is used differently according to these factors, so sociolinguistics studies language change with society. As far as Holmes (2013), “It became clear that it is possible to view the

relationship between social factors and language as rather more dynamic as it is often assumed” (p. 337). Hence, the advent of language research has put forward novel attempts of language description. Language is understood in its actual context used by its speakers.

1.3 Characteristics and Functions of Human Language

From the aforementioned assumptions about language, language description is ought to be revised. Thereof, “Language is a system of communication uniquely associated with humans and distinguished by its capacity to express complex ideas” who 00. Sapir (1921) claims that ‘Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires using voluntarily produced symbols (p.8). It is a distinctly human trait that represents concepts through verbal or non-verbal codes to express different thoughts and to serve multiple purposes/ functions. Various linguists have tried to understand and elucidate the functions of language. For example, Roman Jakobson (1960) defined six primary functions of language according to which an effective act of verbal communication can be described. These six functions are discussed next.

1.3.1 Functions of Human Language

- 1. The Referential function:** It is primarily used to convey information regarding context. It describes situations, objects, or even mental states. For example, “The autumn leaves have all fallen now.” Who p00 .
- 2. The Expressive function:** Alternatively called "expressive" or "effective", this function tries to report the speaker’s internal state, feelings, and attitudes. It puts intention on the emotions added to the statement rather than the context itself. Interjection and exclamations are the best examples of it/ it is best exemplified by emotive utterances when we sight something of great beauty such as: “ wow, isn’t that beautiful!”

3. **The Directive function:** Referred to as the conative, this function is directed to the addressee in a form of commands and requests. It requires the use of vocatives and commands as such, “Richard! Do open the window!”
4. **The Phatic function :** It deals with the use of language for the sake of social interaction and is associated with greetings “ hi, how are you? and ice breaker discussions “ it’s hot today, isn’t it ?”. It also provides the keys to open, maintain, verify or close the conversation "Hello?", "Ok?", "Hmmm", "Bye"...
5. **The Poetic function :**It focuses on “the message for its own sake” how the code is used (Duranti, 1997). It is the aesthetic function of language used mainly in poetry and slogans.
6. **The Meta-lingual function:** This function, also named meta-linguistic or reflexive, is about the use of language to talk or describe language itself. Jakobson (1960) called it language code.

Having mentioned the functions of language is to provide a deep analysis of what is language. There are also numerous attempts to determine the defining properties of human language. In 1960, Charles Hockett listed 13 features that characterized the human communication system from others, which is to be discussed next.

1.3.2 Characteristics of human language

Human language

1. Vocal-auditory channel

It denotes that human communication is made in the vocal-auditory channel via the vocal tract, making sounds by the mouth and is perceived by the ears (auditory).

Even though writing and sign language is made in the manual-visual channel, they are taken as exceptions of the basic mode of communication, the vocal-auditory mode.

2. Broadcast transmission and directional reception

This means that the message can be sent in all directions and is perceived in a limited direction. That is, the signal of the spoken message is broadcasted within the earshot of the listener.

3. Rapid fading (Transitoriness)

Spoken language rapidly fades. It does not persist for long or over time; it cannot be heard after an hour unless it is recorded or written.

4. Interchangeability

It implies that any speaker/sender can interchangeably be a listener/receiver. The speaker can broadcast/ say and receive/ hear the same signal. For instance, "I am a boy".

5. Total feedback

Speakers can hear themselves speaking and can reflect on everything they say as they go. This differs from some other simple communication systems, such as traffic signals. Traffic signs are not normally capable of monitoring their functions (a red light can't tell when the bulb is burned out).

6. Specialization

It means that the sound waves serve nothing but to communicate meaning. The organs responsible for speech (human lips, tongue, throat, etc.) are specially used to signal meaning, unlike the audible panting of dogs, which has a biological purpose.

7. Semanticity

Being a fundamental aspect of all communication systems, Specific sound signals are directly matched with certain meanings.

8. Arbitrariness

In human language, the relation between the sound and the thing it denotes is arbitrary. By means of illustration, there is no natural connection between the word and the thing being referred to. For example, something as large as the whale can be referred to by the very short word “whale”. That is, the symbols used are arbitrary. For example, there is no connection between the word DOG and the four-legged animal it symbolizes

9. Discreteness

Language is composed of basic units. These units are categorized and belong to distinct categories. They are broken down into small discrete units and are combined in a rule-governed way. They can be put in varying linguistic settings to represent different meanings. The change in meaning is abrupt and rarely continuous.

10. Displacement

Unlike animals, humans can talk not only about things happening now but also about the past, future, or even non-existent things. Speakers also can talk about physically distant things such as countries, the sun, etc.

11. Productivity

Human language enables its speakers to produce and understand an unlimited number of new, never heard before utterances. It is also referred to as creativity or open-endedness. Human language is in constant flux; the meaning of signals can change and vary according to time and place.

12. Cultural Transmission

Language is environmental rather than an inborn capacity. Humans are not born with language; in fact, they must acquire it from the surrounding social setting. They learn their native tongue from the community put in; it is transmitted from one generation to another

along with its values, and culture. Children can learn from parents, human beings transmit their language down from one generation to another.

13. Duality of patterning

It is the idea of recombining small units in different orders to create new meanings. Human language has two levels: one meaningless and the other meaningful. Minimal units; the alphabet and phonemes are meaningless individually and until they are combined that meaning emerges.

To sum up, as an attempt to define a language, much research was done. The study of language has evolved immensely. It was regarded as mere structural rules with meaning as an inclusive feature. Apart from the functional and featural analysis, they all finish at one line, which is communication. Yet, the development in understanding language has led to taking it as a social phenomenon that is learned within and along with that society's values, culture, and beliefs. It is beyond structure and meaning, it is language in use. So, to understand language, one will eventually understand the culture associated with it. According to Maynard Smith and Szathmary (1995), language is unique in being both part of human culture and a system for transmitting cultural information as well. The feature of cultural transmission gave insights. This puts forward a need for discussing the relationship between culture and language in detail.

1.4 Culture-Language Relation

1.4.1 Culture

The origin of the Latin word 'cultura' is clear. It is a derivative of the verb 'colo' (infinitive colere), meaning 'to tend', 'to cultivate', and 'to till', among other things (Tucker, 1931). It can take objects such as ager, hence agricultura, whose literal meaning is "field tilling." Another possible object of the verb 'colo' is animus (character). In that case, the expression would refer to the cultivation of the human character. Consequently, the Latin

noun 'cultura' can be associated with education and refinement. The etymological analysis of "culture" is quite uncontroversial. But in the field of anthropology, the situation is much more complex. Definitions of culture abound and range from very complex to very simple.

Up to date, the term culture has been variously and notoriously defined by many scholars ranging from anthropologists to sociolinguists. The pioneering investigation in the term culture gains much attention by the American Anthropologist Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) cited by Adler (1997) who listed 164 various definitions. Three main concepts were suggested according to the usages of the term.

At first, Arnold in *Culture and Anarchy* (1867) referred to culture as special intellectual or artistic endeavors or products, today called "high culture". He suggests that only a small portion of a social group has culture, the rest springs out from anarchy. Culture is the best that has been thought and said in the world. His view featured with beauty intelligence and perfection fits aesthetics more to social sciences. As opposed to Arnold's, Tylor in *Primitive Culture* (1871) defined culture as "that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" (p.1). To put it differently, all folks belonging to a certain social group acquire a whole bag of things: knowledge, habits, and capabilities which make up culture. He/she established a scientific rather than aesthetic basis for culture with different societies ranging from savage (low culture) to civilized (high culture) ones.

In the twentieth century, the work of Franz Boas and his students represents the third usage of culture developed in anthropology. Reacting against Tylor's universalist of a single culture view, Boas (1999) stressed the uniqueness of the many and varied cultures of different peoples or societies and rejected the judgmental view of culture as high or low/savage or civilized. He emphasized that "one should never differentiate high from low, and one ought not differentially to valorize cultures as savage or civilized" (Avruch, 1998, p.6-7)

The various aforementioned interpretations provide a historical perspective to what the term culture used to represent. Still, culture remained a controversial non-negotiable topic among scholars. It has been defined in several ways as follows.

- Phatak et al. (2004), “culture is a concept that has been used in several social science disciplines to explain variations in human thought processes in different parts of the world” (p00).
- Lederach (1995) claims that “Culture is the shared knowledge and schemes created by a set of people for perceiving, interpreting, expressing, and responding to the social realities around them”.
- Linton (1945) sees culture as “a configuration of learned behaviors and results of behavior whose component elements are shared and transmitted by the members of a particular society” (p00).
- Tyler, a British anthropologist, (1870) as cited in Avruch (1998) believes that ‘Culture ... is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society’ (p.6).
- Hofstede (1994) perceives culture as “ the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (p.5).
- Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) as cited by Adler (1997) hold that ‘Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behavior acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiment in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other, as conditional elements of future action.’ (p.14)

- T.Schwartz (1992) as cited by Avruch (1998) says that ‘culture consists of the derivatives of experience, more or less organized, learned or created by the individuals of a population, including those images or encodements and their interpretations (meanings) transmitted from past generations, from contemporaries, or formed by individuals themselves’ (p.17).
- Matsumoto (1996) suggests that culture is “ the set of attitudes, values, beliefs, and behaviors shared by a group of people, but different for each individual, communicated from one generation to the next.’ (p.16)
- Spencer-Oatey (2008) claims that ‘culture is a fuzzy set of basic assumptions and values, orientations to life, beliefs, policies, procedures and behavioral conventions that are shared by a group of people, and that influence (but do not determine) each member’s behavior and his/her interpretations of the ‘meaning’ of other people’s behavior” (p.3).

The various attempts mentioned above towards understanding the term culture provide some key characteristics of culture itself. These features are highlighted next along with the cultural elements.

1.4.2 Features of Culture

1.4.2.1 Culture is a learned transmitted behavior. Human infants are born without any cultural knowledge. Culture is non-instinctive. It is not genetically acquired; it is simply a learned behavior. For example, the way of eating, dressing, and manners of speaking constitute overt behaviors that have to be learned. Yet, recent definitions of culture differentiate between actual behavior and the abstract values, beliefs, and perceptions of the world that comprise that behavior. Haviland (1990) interprets “culture as not an observable behavior, but rather the values and beliefs that people use to interpret experience and generate behavior, and that is reflected in their behavior” (p. 30). Also, culture is transmitted from one

person to another and from generation to another. This learning process happens unconsciously.

1.4.2.2 Culture is abstract. Lenkeit (1999) proposes that “culture is an abstract concept. You can’t touch it or see most of it, and much of it can’t be measured. But, it has molded each of us into who and what we are” (p.25). At the most fundamental level, anthropologists believe that if we examine other cultures we can come to better understand our own. Thus, Lenkeit (1999) sees that culture is something intangible. It exists in the minds of the member of the society and is manifested in their behaviors. Thus, culture is only seen through human behavior.

1.4.2.3 Culture Includes shared Attitudes, Values, and Knowledge. Individuals in a society share collective values. These values govern why the way members of a specific society behave the way they do. They often shape or suggest how members should or should not behave; that is, they propose what is good or bad and what is sought or avoided. So, the ideas, attitudes, and thoughts people have are not their own but rather an unconscious agreement with the other people of the same society. The differences in values among societies are culturally bound.

1.4.2.4 Culture is Material. Artifacts, being part of any society, represent culture. This material culture includes all the physical objects a society possesses, namely tools, technology, clothing, eating utensils, and means of transportation. These material objects are nothing but the result of man’s behavior.

1.4.2.5 Culture varies socially. Every culture is unique and thus every society has a culture of its own. The difference proposed among various cultures is seen through the distinctive behaviors when comparing societies. People from different areas are different in the way of speaking, the way of thinking, and even in the way of dressing. These

discrepancies are due to the effect of cultural background and environment on human behavior, which is associated with region, ethnic origin, or social class.

1.4.2.6 Culture as Constantly Changing. Change is a fundamental and inevitable attribute of culture. All cultures change over time and none is static. Usefulness is considered as the main reason. Every time new cultural traits are added, old ones are lost because of their usefulness. Old and modern urban life stands as the best example for change. This Change stems from the invention or diffusion of one society to another. The rate of change is relative, it varies from one society to another.

1.4.2.7 Language is the Chief Vehicle of Culture. Even though culture is transmitted in many ways, language constitutes the main vehicle of it. Besides being a system of human communication, language is a cultural tool as well. One of the essential key features of human language is cultural transmission, which is language is passed on from one generation to another and so is the culture associated with it.

1.4.3 Elements of culture

According to Johnson (1960), he distinguished five main elements of culture which are as follows:

1.4.3.1 Cognitive elements. It is that component of culture that deals with the norms and values which guide and governs a society's behavior and mentor the interaction among the people. Culture and values are interrelated.

1.4.3.2 Beliefs. Every society has some beliefs which they consider appropriate shared by most of the members of the society. These moral codes are responsible for the spiritual fulfillment and needs and wants and what to consider wrong or right. Beliefs in empirical terms are neither true nor false.

1.4.3.3 Values and norms. Anything that has importance in any society has value. Value of things is taught and transmitted from parents to their children and thus from generation to

generation. Norms decide the rules and regulations and it is of two types: ‘mores’ which are the rules the society must abide by and ‘folkways’ which tell the daily habits of the individual in that society.

1.4.3.4 Symbols. Culture is represented mostly in a form of symbols. These symbols are verbal, language, and non-verbal: materials, signs, clothes .. etc. These symbols are of paramount importance to different societies. For example, the sign of the cross means nothing for Hindus but for Christians, this is a symbol of Lord Christ.

1.4.3.5 Language. One of the essential elements of culture is language, which is a tool used to express one’s view and opinion. Language is the gate to culture. Being the source of communication and message transmission, language differs from one culture to another. When an individual speaks a language he/she speaks his culture with it. In the same vein, Matsumoto and Juang (2013, p.23) also were interested in the notion of culture and their suggestion of cultural elements is as shown in the table below.

Table 1

Elements of Culture (Juang, 2013, p.23)

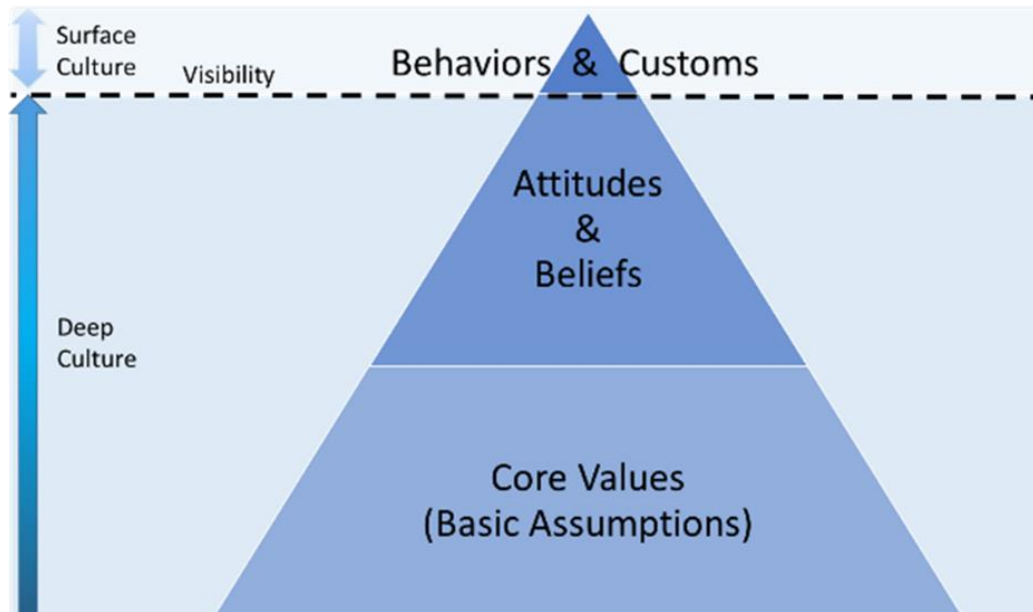
Elements	Examples
Values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individualism vs. Collectivism • Egalitarianism vs. Hierarchy • Sacred values
Beliefs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dynamic externality • Societal cynicism • Religions
Norms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Etiquette and politeness • Expressive behavior • Tightness vs. looseness,
Attitudes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opinions • Stereotypes • Prejudice
Worldviews	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-concepts • Cultural worldviews • Attributions

1.4.4 Models of Culture

1.4.4.1 The Iceberg Cultural Model. The meaning of culture is still a matter of question. What can be put as an example or which analogy should approach it with? The analogy suggested is that of an iceberg, “culture as an iceberg” (Weaver, 1986). The model of the iceberg seems to sum up the concept of culture better, in which the elements are divided and grouped as seen and unseen. This model was developed by the anthropologist Edward T. Hall in the 1976. Culture is compared to an iceberg in terms of what is visible (on the surface/ surface culture) and invisible (below the surface/ deep culture). The upper portion of the iceberg (10%) represents the visible elements of culture namely food, clothes, crafts, language, behaviors and to name a few. As for the deep lower portion surface (90%) of the iceberg, it stands for the cultural core values of any culture. It includes the reasons behind the visible elements and a way to understand them. What is seen of culture only makes sense when we understand the unseen causes lying behind them. These unseen elements are the unspoken rules, religious beliefs, perceptions of the world, family ties, attitudes, what is considered good and bad, what is tolerated what is not, and more. This division is represented in the model suggested by Hall (1976) below.

Figure 1

Hall's Iceberg Model of Culture (1976)



Furthermore, Brake et al., a team of American management consultants, (1995) divided the iceberg as: “laws, customs, rituals, gestures, ways of dressing, food and drink and methods of greeting, and saying goodbye” (p. 34-39). All of these are taken as part of a culture, yet they are just the tip of the cultural iceberg. Also, Katan (1999) says that “the most powerful elements of culture are those that lie beneath the surface of everyday interaction. We call these value orientations. Value orientations are preferences for certain outcomes over others” (p.29).

1.4.4.2 Small c and Big C Culture Framework. Culture has been defined in various ways, but if we consider it in both its narrow and broader sense, mostly concerning language teaching, it is defined in terms of two expressions, small “c” culture, and big “C” culture. Small c and big C are socio-cultural phenomena, which are products of past or present societies 00. Both terms refer to the division made between grand themes which are manifested in ideas, values, history, institutions, literature, philosophy, and artistic products,

and minor themes that reflect everyday life, popular culture, and human behavior (Bennett, 2011; Petersen, 2004). To illustrate, the big C culture “objective culture” is estimated of high value and is part of the shared communication of societal values that are actively passed down to future generations to convey history and values (Orlova, 2003). So, big C culture is a valuable source of a specific society’s civilization and history.

However, little c is referred to as “the personal subjective side of culture” (Orlova, 2003, p. 180). It comprises elements as norms of communication, popular opinion, casual clothing, typical foods and mealtime norms, dialects, and non-verbally conveyed assumptions (Bennett, 2011). A subtle but important distinction to recognize is that big C aspects are highly recognizable and overtly taught while little c aspects are more intimate and ingrained in daily life. Little c culture refers to the aspects of lifestyle or patterns of daily living, while big C culture represents a civilization’s accomplishments in literature and the fine arts, its social institutions, its history, geography, and political system (Herron et al, 2002). In short, culture can be seen as a civilization, the great achievements of a people as reflected in their history, social institutions, works of art, architecture, music, and literature, commonly referred to as big “C” culture (Hu, 2002). Yet, culture can also be viewed as the customs, traditions, or practices that people carry out as part of their everyday lives, i.e. little/small “c” culture (Halverson, 1985). All in all, having mentioned the key characteristics of culture, culture-language relation is a topic that should be further discussed.

1.4.4.3 Sapir-Whorf Hypotheses. Halliday (1978) emphasized that “one of the most important functions of language is its role in the construction of reality. Language is not simply a tool for communication; it is also a guide to what Edward Sapir terms ‘*social reality*. Language has a semantic system or a meaning potential, which enables the transmission of cultural values” (p.109). That is, to speak a language is to speak culture. Theories, namely the

Sapir Whorf hypothesis, are developed on the bond between language and culture and how language influences the culture of its users.

Sapir and Whorf Hypothesis is a hypothesis about the relationship between language and thought built up and expanded by the American anthropological linguists Edward Sapir (1884 – 1939) and Benjamin Lee Whorf (1897 – 1941). Also known as the theory of relativity, linguistic relativism, linguistic determinism, Whorfian hypothesis , or Whorfianism. It suggests that language shapes and determines our reality and our way of thinking and perceiving the world around us, and, thus, people’s perceptions are relative to their native languages (*Marshall, 1998*). The hypothesis is divided into two basic components, linguistic relativity, and linguistic determinism

- **Linguistic Determinism**

In its strong version, linguistic determinism purports that one’s native language directly affects his/her perceptions of the world. For example, the French, Russian and Spanish languages make use of two-second person pronouns: singular and plural. It depends on the relationship (formal or informal) between you and the addressee to choose the pronoun. So, the addressor or always keeps in mind the relationship whenever he/she speaks to others, and thus he/she cannot separate the two processes (Comrie, 2012). So, strong determinism strictly defines the speaker’s thoughts and perceptions of the world.

- **Linguistic Relativism**

It maintains that language indeed has an impact but only influences rather than determines the speaker’s thoughts and decisions. It limits speakers’ reasoning but in some areas only, not wholly due to the structural diversity of languages. Inuit Eskimo represents the best example of linguistic relativity. Unlike English, Inuit Eskimos language uses many words to describe snow such as, “wet snow,” “clinging snow,” and “frosty snow”.

The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis claims that your perception of reality is different if your language does not contain certain words to describe that reality. In certain ancient languages, the word “blue” does not exist, so it will impossible to perceive the sky. This shows the clear relationship between the speaker’s atmosphere and culture and language. Yet, theories on culture-language relationship gained much attention, especially in the field of language learning teaching/ in second language learning.

1.5 Culture in Language Teaching

Different scholars and educators examined culture with language and language teaching. First, Seelye (1976) claims that learning a language without any reference to culture affects one’s socialization, contextual knowledge, and the actual use of the culture. Seelye (1976) maintains that having only linguistic knowledge does not provide any cultural_knowledge about the language such as political, social, religious, or economic insights. Similarly, Rivers (1981) insisted on teaching both appropriate content and activities so that students better approach the desired content. These activities encourage deep learning and better perception of the deeper levels of the culture of the target language. Yet, Kramsch (1993) considers culture the fifth skill along with the common four skills which are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Kramsch (1993) develops the term of third place “grows in the interstices between the cultures the learners grew up with and the new cultures he or she is being introduced to” (p00). She illustrates that this third place emerges at the intersection of multiple native and target cultures. Learner, therefore, should determine what is this third place and if he is aware of it or not.

In addition, Brown (1994) sees culture as a deeply rooted part of our existence and language as being the concrete and available manifestation of that culture. Hence, an individual’s worldview, self-identity, and systems of thinking, feeling, and communicating can be disrupted in different cultures. Therefore, culture can be defined as the blueprint that

guides a community and is ingrained in family life. It orients and controls our behavior and whether we are up to the other's expectations. Culture helps us know our goals and responsibilities as an individual belonging to a certain group and how far we can go. Brown (1994) maintains that language and culture are inseparable with each holding their significance, as a result; cultural competence is an integral part of language learning, especially in foreign language learning.

Furthermore, Tang (1999) viewed language as culture and culture as language. To be a good speaker of the target language, one has to think in that language. Language and culture are linked, scholars must bypass discussing their relationship. Thus, including culture in a foreign language curriculum is inevitable. According to Brown (2000), “ a language is a part of a culture and a culture is a part of the language; the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture” (p.177). Also, a well-known linguist and translation theorist, Nida (2001) examines culture and holds that it is that set of beliefs and practices a society builds, and language is of great importance in expressing and transmitting these beliefs and practices.

Also, Liddicoat et al. (2003) believe that language culture interaction connects all levels of language use and structures; all levels of culture are dependent on culture. Language expresses and manifests culture in a form of verbal symbols (Kramersch, 1998). The relationship between language and culture is made meaningful in language learning as “the person who learns language without learning culture risks becoming a fluent fool” (Bennett, Bennett & Allen, 2000, p.00). Moreover, Mitchell and Myles (2004) argue that “language and culture are not separate, but are acquired together, with each providing support for the development of the other” (p. 235). This relationship can be reflected in terms such as lingua-culture (Friedrich, 1989), lingua-culture (Risager, 2005) language and culture (Liddicoat et al., 2003), or culture-language (Papademetre and Scarino, 2006). It is also shown in cultural

denotations and connotations in semantics (Byram, 1989), cultural norms in communication (Kramersch, 1993), and the mediatory role of language in the social construction of culture (Kramersch, 1996).

Language is a part of culture and plays a very important role in it, especially in language education. Traditional language teaching-learning has been concerned with only developing linguistic ability. Yet, Language is not a mere of vocabulary and syntactic forms and structures (linguistic competence). Language reflects the culture of its users. Kramersch (1993) stated that “every time we speak we perform a cultural act” (p.00). From the perspective of language teaching and learning, to teach a foreign language is to teach another culture, and to learn a language is also to learn another culture. Thus, teaching language along with its culture is inevitable. Therefore, apart from the linguistic component of the language, cultural knowledge is a basis for language proficiency as well.

Culture –language relationship has led to numerous debates on its role in English skills learning proficiency, particularly listening skills in different non-native speaking countries. Over history, methods of foreign language teaching changed increasingly in perspective. Every method reflects the society’s needs for language teaching of that time. Stern (1983) beholds language teaching as an art which through the ages has undertaken three major objectives: social (language as a form of communication), artistic-literary (language as a vehicle for artistic creation and appreciation), and philosophical (linguistic analysis). He maintains that these broad aims have, in different periods in history, been emphasized to varying degrees. Also, Long-Fu (2001) suggests that the drivers for this change is a constantly advancing society that creates new roles for language in society, the development of social sciences, and new objectives of language teaching. So, different methods of teaching were suggested approaching the aspect of culture in various ways.

1.5.1 Traditional Approaches

Given the various approaches put for foreign language teaching throughout history, the integration of culture has been approached differently. Thus, the view of culture under such approaches demands a detailed review of the history of foreign language teaching first and how culture is integrated with each.

1.5.1.1 Grammar-Translation Method

The Grammar Translation Method (GTM) is one of the traditional and old methods of foreign language teaching. It prevailed as a teaching method around the mid-19th century till the 20th, which uses translation and grammar study as the main teaching-learning activities. Called the classical or the traditional method, it was introduced as an approach to teach classical languages (Latin and Greek) in the early 1800s (Chastain, 1988; Cook, 2003; Larsen-Freeman) because “In the western world, “foreign” language learning in schools was synonymous with the learning of Latin and Greek” (Brown, 2000, p.15). Through the study of the grammar of the target language, learners will gain familiarity with the rules of their native language, which in return makes them think better. Yet, this perspective has been criticized heavily.

On an everyday level, GTM neglected the use of authentic spoken communication and paid less attention to the social language variation and the teaching of culture (Rivers, (1968 & Omaggio, 1986). Long-Fu (2001) believes that teaching Latin dialogues stand as a good example of the inclusion of the teaching of culture in GTM. Culture, in those days, was associated with the general knowledge of literature and arts and used to indicate the refined ways of the elite and powerful people. The comparison between languages via translation leads to the implicit recognition of culture language interwoven relationships (Long-Fu, 2001). However, it would contribute to the development of the learner’s ability to socially

interact with people from different cultures. Learning a foreign language was driven by literary reasons rather than pragmatic ones.

1.5.1.2 The Direct Method

The end of the 19th gave rise to the evolution in science and technology and so was in language teaching. The demand for a social objective approach to language teaching stemmed from People's need to travel to other countries to do business (Long-Fu, 2001). Berlitz (1878) and Jespersen (1904) advocated the foundation of a method named The Direct Method. This method suggests/ that meaning is to be conveyed directly in the target language through the use of demonstration and visual aids with no recourse/reference to the student's native language (Diller, 1978). The visual aids are represented in a form of culturally oriented pictures to raise students' awareness of the situations they may encounter once abroad (Rivers, 1968; Omaggio, 1986).

Culture place in such method consists of the teaching of the history of the native speakers of the target language, the geography of the country, and information about the daily lives of the people (Larsen-Freeman 2000). Long-Fu (2001) maintains that DM preoccupation with culture is associated with small "c" culture at the beginning stages and large 'C' culture at the advanced stage. In short, the main purpose of teaching language under this method was to promote international communication and exchange with Europe which was characterized by competition and imperialism.

1.5.1.3 The Audio-Lingual Method

Along with teaching linguistic forms, the Audio-Lingual method seeks out a contrastive analytic approach in the teaching of culture. The cultural notes that supplement the pattern drills describe everyday life, comparing American culture to the "target" culture (Grittner, 1990). It emphasizes the teaching of small "c" culture through the use of colloquial and socio-linguistically appropriate language. Chastain (1976) maintains that the dialogues in ALM

texts are both linguistically and culturally authentic. To illustrate, the input is in L2 and a form of appropriate and culturally loaded conversations. This indicates that the cultural dimension in ALM is still behind the real purpose of foreign language teaching and again, like the Direct Method, is subordinated to language teaching (Long-Fu, 2001).

1.5.1.4 The Cognitive Approach

In this approach, learning is a conscious process. Second language acquisition proceeds in a conscious and meaningful manner using learning strategies deliberately to develop performance skills (Long-Fu, 2001). The learner is conscious when acquiring the competence. This theory contrasts completely with the behaviorist view that considers language learning an automatic and unconscious process. The learner is an information processor with memory limitations and the need for strategies for memory information transfer operation. The cultural orientation in this method is not as clear as in the previous methods. However, cognitive psychologists in the late 1960s, like Ausubel, placed great importance on meaningfulness and organization of background knowledge in the learning process (Omaggio, 1983).

1.5.1.5 The Silent Way Method

Gattegno (1972) is the main figure of the Silent Way Approach in which he advocates/proposes learners' complete awareness of the different challenges they may face being given their full freedom during their language acquisition process. This method places great importance on the relationship between culture and language. Culture is an inseparable part of language. That is, Language reflects the culture and everyday life, art, literature, etc. should be learned (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

1.5.1.6 Community language learning

On the other hand, Curran (1976) supports the community language learning method. Based on this approach, learners have the chance to freely share their linguistic difficulties and can control their curriculum design based on their needs. The teacher in this case only

facilitates the process and tries to reduce learners' fear and anxiety through creating a healthy learning atmosphere. This method gives importance to the target culture for successful communication. Culture is integrated with language. Social lifestyle, art, literature, customs, and habits should be taught (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

1.5.1.7 Suggestopaedia Method

Driven by a humanistic orientation, Suggestopaedia is developed by the Bulgarian psychotherapist Georgi Lozanov (1979). This method promotes fast learning; learner learns a language three to five times faster than the usual teaching methods. This method is driven by the modern view of how the brain works and effective learning. Learning resources constitute music, games, puzzles, and to name a few. The culture which students learn in this approach concerns the everyday life of people who speak the target language. The use of fine arts is also common (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

1.5.2 Modern Approaches

1.5.2.1 The Communicative Approach

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) maintain that Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) promotes real-life situations of language and emphasizes teaching language use. It provides an environment where socio-cultural situations, language structure, and grammar are taught and evaluated according to their priority in their actual use. Long-Fu (2001) aims at giving importance to the social and cultural context in foreign language teaching driven by the belief that language is influenced by the society's culture and the users of a language.

In the same regard, Canale and Swain (1980) divided communicative competence into linguistic competence, discourse competence, socio-linguistics competence, and strategic competence. Yet, Byram (1997) proposes that defining communicative competence in relation to the sociolinguistic of a society or even based on a native speaker model is not enough and is considered narrow and short viewed because model alike neglects the learners'

social identity in any intercultural communicative setting. He suggests in return a 'language for intercultural understanding' dimension of cultural teaching which will be explained in the next section.

1.5.2.2 Cooperative Language Learning

Classroom activities not only develop vocabulary and language structure for later use, but they also promote learners' worldview, personal ties with group members, their identities, and the sense of membership in the learning community. Cooperative Language Learning engages learners in the group because it creates an effective classroom culture where the aim is developing group work, emotional and linguistic skills to be a member of a larger social learning community (Murphey & Asaoka, 2006). Again, CLL is beyond being an approach to language teaching, it triggers learners' incorporation of knowledge gained in the classroom into the society surrounding them.

1.5.2.3 Content-Based Language Instruction

Teachers in the content-based language methodology must be well qualified to create an environment that supports that support students' cultural identities, language and literacy development, and content-area achievement. Learners must have the required cultural background knowledge for appropriate language use. Therefore, CBI places great importance on learning a foreign language along with the culture of its native speakers. Met (1991) proposes that "content in content-based programs represents material that is cognitively engaging and demanding for the learner and is material that extends beyond the target language or target culture" (p00). Culture in CBI is easily presented via culturally bound vocabulary and expressions. Teachers use culturally loaded texts related to the student's interests and may use visual materials to facilitate the learning process and learners' interaction for them to feel in the skin of a foreigner.

1.5.2.4 Task-Based Language Teaching

Task-Based Language Teaching uses authentic and contextual materials and tasks to learn the language in use, such as activities using cultural objectives. These activities are effective as they use cultural-oriented materials like postcards, photographs, symbols, and images in song lyrics. Tomalin and Stempleski (1998) designed an activity alike named Culture Composition, which aims at developing not only the writing skills but also recognizing cultural artifacts. To illustrate, students put in groups are given items representing a specific culture namely, bus or air tickets, receipts, coupons, money, and photographs. Each group presents a story they make up based on the given item, both spoken and written. In this task-oriented approach is considered, students have the chance to discover and interpret the information within the context of the target culture and in comparison to their own culture, and hence it is taken as an effective method for teaching culture.

1.5.2.5 The Intercultural Competence

Over the past two decades, language teaching has changed to a greater extent; intercultural competence becomes a main element in the language teaching-learning process. Atay et al. (2009) commented that language learning objectives are set according to the intercultural competence rather than the student's ability to fulfill the linguistic, socio-linguistic, and pragmatic competencies (Council of Europe, 2001). Byram (1997) stated that the success of interaction implies not only an effective interchange of information, as was the goal of communicative language teaching, but also "the ability to decenter and take up the other's perspective on their own culture, anticipating and where possible, resolving dysfunctions in communication and behavior" (p. 42). So, linguistic competence is only one part of language learning (Krasner, 1999). To have the full competency, one must learn the appropriate forms of language that the target culture shapes for instance, how to appropriately address people, express gratitude, make requests, and agree or disagree with someone.

Learners have to be aware of the cultural differences and the appropriate use of language to have successful communication. A model of intercultural competence has been proposed by Byram (1997).

This model recognizes five factors namely Knowledge, Attitudes, Skills of interpreting and relating, Skills of discovery and interaction, and Political education including critical cultural awareness. Knowledge consists of gaining information about the society, products and practices, and processes of interaction. Yet, attitudes include the person's readiness and openness to interact with and engage in another culture. The skills of interpreting and relating, on the other hand, is the person's ability to recognize and explain and ponder upon cultural views and interpret them in context. Also, Skills of discovery and interaction mean acquiring cultural knowledge, attitudes, and skills and employing them in terms of real-time communication. At last, critical awareness is whether an individual can critically judge and distinguish the values and attitudes, and perspectives in his own and a different culture.

All in all, this model, the intercultural approach, has been the source of insight into language teaching. It highlights the intercultural competence and the skills teachers need to focus on for effective learning.

Conclusion

To sum up, there has been a remarkable change in foreign language teaching. Culture teaching has changed teachers' perceptions and methods. Teachers, to adapt to this change, must teach the linguistic code and its use in a real context. It is their job to "contextualize that code against the socio-cultural background associated with the foreign language and to promote the acquisition of intercultural communicative competence" (Castro, 1999) p00. Now, Teachers for their learners to fulfill the objectives set have to work as a link between the culture of the native language and the target language. (Byram & Risager, 1999; Edelhoff,

1993). In return, teachers need to be knowledgeable about the target culture's attitudes, competencies, and skills. This knowledge is greatly acquired from fields like anthropology and culture learning theories and intercultural communications; the teacher needs to be ready to know intercultural competence and how to teach it (Edelhoff, 1993; Willems, 2002).

CHAPTER TWO
Language Teaching and Culture

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Introduction

Over the last two centuries, the relationship between language teaching and culture has been thoroughly examined. As for language teaching and culture, two main viewpoints prevail, the 'static' and the 'dynamic' views. In their models, Brooks (1975) and Nostrand (1974) perceive culture as static; that is, culture is seen as unvarying and consists of discrete and concrete facts that can be taught and learned. Liddicoa (2002) on the one hand holds that this static view does not acknowledge the relationship between language and culture. It only gives learners the knowledge of the static and the unchanged aspect of culture such as facts or artifacts and ignores the changing nature of culture and the information about the people, their lives, their history, their institutions, or their customs or about the cultural icons these people have produced, such as their literature, their art, their architecture, or their music. Following such a perspective, the cultural component can be self-contained and taken as a separate part from language that can even be taught and presented in learners' first language rather than the target language. According to Liddicoat (2002), culture from this static viewpoint is learned not as a process in which the learner is immersed/ engaged in real-life situations, but rather as a closed set of information that needs to be memorized and retained later.

On the other hand, recent models see culture as a dynamic and variable component. This model actively engages learners in the cultural learning process. Information is contextualized in time and space and is changed according to time, regions, classes, and generations (Crawford and McLaren, 2003). As far as Liddicoa (2002), culture is viewed as constantly changing practices where people actively interact and engage to live their lives. People use these contextual cultural practices to formulate and comprehend other people's social world as culture is practical and dynamic not passive and static. Learning verbal and non-verbal

practices is important, but learning the way people behave and practice in daily life context is equally important. Hence, when a language is taught for its educational values, understanding the cultural contents associated with the language is significant (Lado, 1964). Cultural knowledge thereof is merely about engaging learners and encouraging them to interact not loading them with information. The cultural competence learning process should shift its way from using tasks or exercises to how language is used by native speakers. However, engaging in other's cultures does not mean learners should neglect the knowledge of their language and their culturally-bound practices and behaviors.

All in all, the change in how culture teaching is viewed resulted in a conceptual shift from culture-specific to culture-general models of intercultural competence. To illustrate, culture-specific learning means all the cultural information and skills related to a particular group or society. Nevertheless, culture-general learning covers a piece of more general and transferable knowledge and skills across cultures. It includes learners' ability to tolerate and have an interest in cross-cultural settings (Lustig and Koester, 1996, Kelley and Myers, 1995).

2.1 Cultural Content in FL Classrooms

The interest in culture language relationships has been further developed to which culture to be taught in particular. Language educators distinguished different types of cultural content to meet their learners' objectives. For example, Kramersch (1995), argued that there exist three various links between language i.e. universal, national and local links. Firstly, the universal links refer to the common cultural features found in various language speakers across social and national boundaries. Secondly, the national links constitute the cultures within the national boundaries, for instance, French "civilization", German "landeskunde" or English "culture". Lastly, the culture transmitted via the words and actions of speakers in everyday life is called local links. Similarly, Cortazzi and Jin (1999) distinguish three kinds of

culture they represent in their EFL classes, namely the target culture, the source culture, and the international culture. These kinds are stated below.

2.1.1 The Target Culture

The target culture means that learners are being exposed to materials and knowledge of the culture of the language they are learning. It includes the cultural knowledge of the people who use the language as their mother tongue. This, in turn, may help boost learners' motivations and positive attitudes towards learning the language along with its culture.

2.1.2 The Source Culture

The source culture refers to learners' own culture or what is called "local culture". Drawing attention to learners' own culture encourages them to understand better their cultural identity and be open to others.

3.1.3 The International Culture

The international culture consists of the different cultural information about various countries worldwide (Matsuda, 2012). It includes a global society's cultural content. Zacharias (2014) claims that the sociolinguistic practices of a society can be easily grasped if learners gain cross-cultural knowledge.

2.2 Objectives of Culture Teaching –Learning

The idea to advance learners' awareness of the target culture and their own is fostered by Fenner (2000). He believes that learners should advance their cultural knowledge, competence, and awareness of the native speakers' culture along with theirs. Language educators focus more on these learning objectives. They emphasized the three levels of knowledge, awareness, and competence to highlight cultural learning approaches and outcomes. To exemplify, culture integration in language education, Georgiou (2011), Larzén

(2005), and Piątkowska (2015) suggest three important culture teaching methods, namely the knowledge-based approach, the contrastive approach, and the intercultural communicative competence approach. First, the knowledge-based approach gives learners facts and information about the target culture like the society's habits and customs, folklore of everyday life literature or arts. Second, the contrastive approach aims at comparing and contrasting learners' own culture and the target language culture. Learners should be able to link both cultures (Thanasoulas, 2001). Finally, intercultural communicative competence encourages learners to master the communicative skills for future global and international engagements and interactions (Marczak, 2010).

By the same token, Larzén (2005) puts forward three prominent cultural teaching objectives. These objectives are the knowledge of other cultures, skills for intercultural encounters, and tolerance and empathy. To illustrate, learners are supposed to acquire knowledge of factual information, information about cultural products or ways of living and thinking related to the target language culture. Also, for learners to fulfill the intercultural encounters objectives, they should understand the social and the socio-linguistic conventions, in communication, and be up to communicate and engage themselves with people from foreign cultures effectively and appropriately. Furthermore, learners are also aspiring to promote tolerance and empathy as an objective. The outcome of this objective is that learners will reduce stereotypes and prejudiced views against other cultures. Furthermore, learners will be open to differences to the point of respectfulness but not necessarily acceptance (Larzen Ostermark, 2008).

In this respect, Piątkowska (2015) and Larzén (2005) propose three levels of learner outcomes in culture learning namely, cultural knowledge, cultural awareness, and cultural competence. These cultural teaching goals are to be discussed in detail next.

2.2.1 Cultural knowledge

Bayram (1989) defined cultural knowledge as information about culture presented in a structured and systematic manner. (Moran, 2001) further illustrates that this information is about people, customs, habits, folklore of everyday life, cultural products, literature or arts, as well as the nature of culture and the processes of learning other cultures. Also, Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004) hold that culture is not modified from the person's experience but rather transmitted by another. Thereof, this cultural knowledge is manifested in language classrooms in the form of national links which are information about the target language, the target language-speaking countries, learners' country, or other countries (target, source/local international) (Kramsch, 1995). In his study' teachers' perceptions of culture teaching in secondary schools in China, Han (2010) explains that teachers perceive cultural knowledge as components of small 'c' culture like folklore, food, festival, or facts of the American or British people. He argues that teachers were not able to help develop their learners' cultural communicative competence. In addition, Sarıçoban and Çalışkan (2011) discuss the same results. According to survey results, teachers still hold the belief that teaching culture means focusing on facts, information, and aspects of the American and British cultures.

2.2.2 Cultural Awareness

Gaining pure information is necessary but it is not enough as it does not promote learners' critical thinking. So, learners should have cultural knowledge as well as cultural awareness. As far as Tomalin and Stempleski (2013), cultural awareness is "sensitivity to the impact of culturally-induced behavior on language use and communication" (p.05). when learners acquire cultural knowledge, they also gain awareness of their own and others' cultural beliefs, practices, and values. Thus, learners now can use language in various cultural contexts and settings and keep their own identities in the process. In a study investigating English culture teaching among university students in Southern China, Fang (2011) finds that learners

hold positive attitudes towards the target, source, and international cultures. The majority of students were open to pondering upon and being aware of their local and national culture and identity. Moreover, learners acknowledged the importance of the target language culture as well as the international culture. Students fully grasped the fact that their home culture should be learned in a multicultural framework.

2.2.3 Cultural Competence

The process of culture learning necessitates the acquisition of cultural knowledge and the development of cultural awareness too to achieve cultural competence. Barraja-Rohan (1999) claims that cultural competence constitutes “the acquisition of resources to deal with interlocutors of diverse ethnic backgrounds” and “an awareness of cultural diversity and an ability to recognize and accept differences and manage them successfully” (p.143). Kramsch (1993) further adds that when learners gain cultural knowledge, it implies that they can compare or contrast between various cultures and not necessarily comply or agree with the behaviors of this culture; learners have no “obligation to behave following the social conventions” (p.181). Consequently, learners can build their identity and construct harmony and tolerance with their own culture and with other cultures. This competence hence may be presented as intercultural competence.

2.3 Third Place or Third Culture

Developing intercultural competence in language teaching has been of main interest to scholars like Bianco, Crozet, and Liddicoat (1999). They suggest that in this way students will directly and actively engage/interact with other cultures. intercultural interaction is a mere of finding a middle ground between full immersion into the target culture and marinating the students’ own culture, viz. discovering a ‘third place’ working a bridge between the two. Accordingly, Bianco et al. propose three approaches to teaching culture.

The first is the traditional method that focuses on teaching literature. In this approach, learners are not prone to use the target language to interact with representatives of the target language and culture. In the 1970s, the cultural studies approach has been suggested instead. Culture learning refers to the knowledge about the history, institutions, and geography of the target language society. Yet, the 1980s view culture as practices and” a collective way of acting through language” (p. 9). Learners observe and interpret the target language speaker’s words and actions. Still, learners remain within their own culture and they may build stereotypes about the target language culture (which is presented as static and homogenous).

Intercultural language teaching comprises three important aspects: the teaching of a lingua-culture (links between language and culture), a comparison of the student's native language and culture with the target language and culture, and intercultural exploration (the third place between two cultures). The notion of creating a third place between two cultures in cultural language teaching remains an issue for examination. Kramsch (1993) shows that “[at] the intersection of multiple native and target cultures, the major task of language learners is to define for themselves what this ‘third place’ that they have engaged in seeking will look like, whether they are conscious of it or not” (p. 233). She refers to this ‘third place’ as ‘third culture’ a neutral state that promotes learners' reflection on cultures, the target culture, and their own. The term third culture is suggested to avoid the dichotomy of native versus non-native comparison or first against second culture.

2.3.1 Features of Third Culture

Kramsch (2009) adds three features to the term third culture, which are as follows:

- 1. A popular culture:** the learner in this case is perplexed during the process of creating meaning between two cultures. Bearing the belief of third-place/culture, teachers

should help their learners construct meaning by providing chances to build learners' identities and own meaning, such as role-plays and simulations.

2. **A critical culture:** It helps develop learners' critical thinking towards the culture taught in the classroom, resistant reading of texts with cultural content to scrutinize the beliefs, attitudes, and views of that culture.
3. **An ecological culture:** Embracing the concept of the third culture as a language teaching methodology entails giving importance to context and works by environment conventions. This teaching methodology uses communicative activities, vocabulary memorization, learning poems by heart; real-world tasks, dictation, translation, transcription of written texts or audio recordings and to name a few. Peterson and Coltrane (2003) draw attention to the fact that students must know that culture cannot be considered monolithic.

All in all, learners must be aware that they may encounter different behaviors in many interactions with the speech community of the target language. So, teachers should help them explore and observe such interactions, reflect on them and find their own identity within that target culture society. In support of this view, Moeller and Nugent (2014) claim that intercultural competence should be an integral part of foreign language curriculums. Learners thereof will learn to use the target language appropriately. "They can examine their own beliefs and practices through a different lens, negotiate points of view different from their own, and gain an insider's perspective of another culture"(Moeller & Nugent, 2014, p. 14).

2.4 Ways and Approaches to Teach Culture

Many scholars have proposed several approaches and techniques related to the teaching of culture in foreign language classrooms. Choosing the approach is mainly

dependent on the context in which the language is being taught (EFL or ESL), learners' age and their language competency, and the teacher.

2.4.1 Context of teaching culture

Stern (1992, p.223) suggests three teaching settings and situations when teaching culture:

1. Teaching culture within the language courses: in this case, students are absent (physically and psychologically) from the reality of the target culture and are given knowledge and context to help visualize this reality. This is the most common way of teaching culture in non-native speaking countries in which there is no contact with the native speakers' culture.
2. Teaching culture to prepare students for real situations: students are psychologically prepared for new cultural contexts (a visit or work). Students are more motivated even if they are not physically present in that context.
3. Culture is taught in a real context. Students are physically and psychologically present in a cultural setting; they can be immigrants or studying and living with the target language society. Teachers in this scenario have to well prepare students so that they don't fall into cultural misunderstandings.

The aforementioned situations demand specific objectives and goals of culture teaching as well as the suitable topics chosen to be taught for each situation. If the purpose, for example, is to give information about the new culture, the teacher will use activities like, reading and discussing literary and newspaper texts, watching videos and films. Yet, when students are put in real cultural contexts, having role plays, drama and dialogues are the best choices. In doing so, learners' age and language proficiency level must be taken into consideration.

Byram (1997) supports this view and maintains that “teaching and learning aims which include understanding, tolerance, empathy, and related notions presuppose a psychological readiness in learners which may be age-dependent, may be influenced by social factors, may be furthered or even inhibited by exposure to a foreign culture and language.” (pp.55-56). The choice of the right approach is thoroughly examined. The teacher must be knowledgeable of the target culture and its different contexts and "be aware of the nature of the challenge to learners' understanding of their culture and identity" Byram (1997, p.62).

2.4.2 Overview of Approaches to Teaching Culture

The teaching approaches of culture have gained importance in the realm of language teaching-learning. Scholars categorized these approaches differently. For example, Saluveer (2004) on the one hand suggests two categories, namely the mono-cultural approach whose main and sole objective is to teach the target culture, and the comparative approach which aims at comparing the learners' local culture and other cultures. On the other hand, Risager (1998, pp.243-252) maintains that the teaching of culture is divided into four approaches that are, the intercultural approach, the multicultural approach, the trans-cultural approach, and the foreign-cultural approach.

Firstly, the intercultural approach denotes that the target culture is best taught in a comparison with the learner's local culture. This approach focuses greatly on the target culture with a small reference to the learner's own culture. Its objective is to raise learners' knowledge of the intercultural and communicative competencies for them to be able to perform as mediators between their own and the target culture eventually. Yet, this approach has been criticized. Risager (1998, p.246) sees that this approach is "blind to the actual multicultural character of almost all existing countries or states". Therefore, the multicultural approach is suggested to be used in foreign language classrooms instead.

Secondly, the multicultural approach focuses on the ethnic and linguistic variety of the target culture along with the learners' local culture as a comparison must be made in this case. It pertains that in one culture, there exist many sub-cultures and these cultures are not monolithic. Risager (1998) holds that "the view for these cultures must be a view of empathy and anti-racism" (p.246). Thirdly, Risager (1998) further adds that the trans-cultural approach includes the bond between the modern cultures which have a direct bond between mass communication, World Wide Web, globalization, and the ensuing phenomena. In this approach, the foreign language is taken as an international language so, it is not linked to any particular culture. Yet, following this approach has many lacks. It introduces universal cultural knowledge to learners it does not provide learners with special features of a specific culture that "characterize its uniqueness for the language learner" (Byram,1997, p.55). Simply put, driven by the idea of a single culture, the foreign-culture approach emphasized the target culture without any reference to or comparison with the learners' own culture.

The integration of culture in language education became inevitable as culture and language teaching are interrelated (Kramersch, 1998; Lesow-Hurley, 2000; Savignon & Sysoyev, 2002; Sellami, 2000). Yet, some approaches do not reflect this relationship. Teaching culture through facts stands as an example. Weil (1998) named this kind of view the tourist approach which is the transmission of cultural trivia regarding the trivia approach, Crawford-Lange, and Lange (1984) pertain that the study of culture means the "study of its essence", while the traditional teaching of culture through facts is a fragmented view of culture. Weil (1998). To support, Sellami (2000) claims that "a simplistic view maintaining that in teaching language we by definition also teach its cultural baggage falls short of credibility" (p. 4). Sellami provides the best argument on the interwoven relationship between teaching language along with its culture. The common perspective used is to teach culture implicitly, that is, through the teaching of idiomatic expressions, typical food, seeing a movie,

or learning about cultural celebrations such as Valentine's Day. But, this method has been born out and proven to hinder rather than help learners' cultural understanding.

In the same vein, considering culture as a fifth skill needs further investigation / is a narrow perspective. Considering culture as a spate practice does not shed light on the intrinsic bond between culture and language. Kramersch (1993) states that If [...] language is seen as social practice, culture becomes the very core of language teaching. Cultural awareness must then be viewed as enabling language proficiency... Culture in language teaching is not an expendable fifth skill, tacked on, so to speak, to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. (p. 8).

In the search for the best methods of teaching foreign language and reaching the goal of using language appropriately, different methods were inspired from outer fields.

Interdisciplinary approaches were the source of inspiration for the field of culture-language teaching, namely Cognitive Psychology, Literature, Anthropology, Sociology, Cultural Studies, History, and communication. These fields help modify and amend the view toward the pedagogy and theories suggested for language learning-teaching. The main contributions are off. Critical theorists like (Bourdieu, 1986; Delpit, 1988; Fairclough, 1989; Gee, 1991; Pennycook, 1998) showed that classrooms reflect cultural content where social context and meaning are revealed. Consequently, socio-cultural theories targeting the way cultural-language relation is taught prevailed. However, Kramersch (1993) denounced the insufficiency of approaches focusing on the connection between discourse and culture. Language teaching is not only about the linguistic features and the aim is not only promoting the mental challenges of achieving communicative competence or linguistic knowledge. Austin and Hall (2003) maintain that language teaching involves socio-cultural processes that demonstrate discrepancies with the student's home culture and language. Therefore, the conflict between this cultural inclusion is hard to escape, not to mention when two or more cultures meet.

Another proponent of an integral approach is foreign language literacy. It helps to familiarize learners with the cultural values and narratives of the target language. As far as Berman (1996), the foreign language literacy approach focuses on the relationship between language and culture. This relationship is presented in many cultural acts such as films, songs, political discourse, and everyday language (Berman, 1996, cited in Kern 2000). In the venture of designing a coherent framework that fits language and culture in EFL teaching, the name of intercultural competence has gained popularity, especially in European EFL settings. Taken as a new dimension to language teaching and given its similarity with the term communicative competence of the late 1980s.

2.5 Intercultural Competence

Intercultural competence is nowadays regarded as the new magic word (Sercu, 1995). In an attempt to define it, (Jensen, 1995, p. 41 states that it is “the ability to stabilize one’s self-identity while mediating between cultures”. that is, it includes the ability to behave and use language appropriately in intercultural contexts and to develop cognitive and emotional intercultural relationships. Similarly, Byram, Gribkova, and Starkey (2002) conceptualize intercultural competence in a document written for the European Union language council. The concept constitutes five main *savoirs* as shown below.

Figure 2

Michael Byram's (1997) Model of Intercultural Communicative Competence



2.5.1 Skills of Interpreting and Relating (Savoir Comprendre)

It is one's ability to interpret a document or event from a different culture and explain it and relate it to his own culture. Learners interpret both, the different culture and their own and try to relate. In this case, learners make use of the skill of meditation. This type of savoir demands careful reading, analysis, and interpretation of texts to change learners' views and perspectives. To promote this skill, teachers use activities like working with literary texts (writing new scenes, new endings), providing learners with different cultural situations, and using role plays.

2.5.2 Knowledge (Savoirs)

It deals with the knowledge of the practices and behaviors of a specific social and one's group. It comprises knowing social processes and their illustrations and products about how they perceive themselves and others. It is also the knowledge of interaction (individual and societal), traditional Landeskunde knowledge viz. autostereotypes, which are the positive or negative stereotypes a person has about his/her own culture as well as hetero-stereotypes which are positive/negative stereotypes an individual has about other cultures. This knowledge is developed through facts (film, texts, internet, authentic material), working with stereotypes in class, and guest speakers.

2.5.3 Critical Cultural Awareness (Savoir S'Engager)

It aims at a critical and explicit evaluation of perspectives, practices, and products about both cultures (local and target). It is related to cultural studies mainly with speakers of a different culture. This eventually may result in exchanging stereotypes and developing the competence of a critical perspective on the individual's own culture. It is more developed through the comparison of different cultures.

2.5.4 Savoir être / Attitudes (Savoir être)

It revolves around the explanation of attitudes and values one holds about his social group. It tries to promote openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures, and belief about one's own. It also highlights the way an outsider perceives one's own culture in terms of beliefs, values, and attitudes. One of the tools used to raise learners' curiosity and interest is brainstorming, visual aids with authentic texts containing the literature of other cultures (their lives, children, young adult), songs and interviews (virtual or face to face) emails and cultural similarities.

2.5.5 Skills of Discovery and Interaction (Savoir Apprendre/Faire)

This ability makes learners acquire new cultural knowledge and work with it/ operate it. Learning the cultural attitudes of a specific culture to practice and communicate them in real-life settings. This skill requires certain activities and tools to develop it. For example, learners compare emails, use face-to-face and virtual encounter projects (webcam), chat, study visits like ethnographic observation tasks (sounds, images, smells ...etc), negotiation of cultural misunderstandings, role plays, and critical incidents.

2.6 Sources of Cultural Knowledge

In teaching culture, there exist various sources of cultural knowledge. Information can also be drawn from the activities assigned to students. That is, teachers use folklore, poems, and songs as the best source of cultural knowledge. For example, folktales engage students in exploring the theme and structure of a folktale (discourse competence), relating these to their L1 background knowledge, and then concluding the target culture, its beliefs, values, lifestyles, history, and so on (Akpinar and Ozturk, 2009). The main sources of culture are as follows:

2.6.1 Literature

Literature stands as a great resource for cultural knowledge. Literary texts (drama , fiction , poetry) are loaded with cultural information there for such texts must wisely selected to meet the cultural objectives set for students (Peterson and Coltrane, 2003). Similarly, Fenner (2001:16,20) agrees that literary texts are richer and more diverse than factual texts.

2.6.2 Cultural Capsules

Cultural capsules are taken as one of the most useful activities for teaching cultures and resources of cultural information. This technique evokes the description and features of the target culture (e.g., what is customarily eaten for meals and when these meals are eaten,

marriage, etc) along with a comparison with the local culture. By pointing out the contrasting information, students will be able to grasp as much cultural information as they can.

2.6.3 Objects

When teaching culture, teachers can provide students with objects from the target culture like tools, jewelry, or images (Peterson and Coltrane, 2003). Students are assigned to look up information on the object given and submit full research about it. Then, they can present it orally and submit a written summary about how this item relates culturally. Activities alike can lead students to develop and start discussions on larger cultural-historical and even linguistic factors related to the objects.

2.6.4 Students' Research

According to Cullen (2000), the student's research is a highly motivating and powerful tool to acquire cultural knowledge. Students are motivated because they get to search for the things that interest them. For instance, as a classroom activity, students choose a cultural aspect they are interested in and look for information on the internet or in a library; then they hold a discussion in which they explain their findings to the group. So, besides being autonomous learners, students' research raises their motivation in the target culture for longer terms.

2.6.5 Collocations, Idioms, and Proverbs

Other elements that should be introduced in the classroom and reflect cultural features are collocations, idioms, and proverbs.

- **Collocations**

According to the English Oxford Living Dictionaries in linguistics, collocation means “the habitual juxtaposition of a particular word with another word or words with a frequency greater than chance”. Students may run for a literal translation of the meaning from their

mother languages as they find them hard to remember. So, they don't use the appropriate collocation from the target language. For instance, English collocations such as "do the dishes", "make friends", or "take a nap" cannot be translated literally into Hungarian, wherefore Hungarian students must practice and memorize these expressions. To avoid such false attempts, the structures and meaning of collocations must be clearly explained and practiced inside the classroom.

- **Idioms**

Another culture-specific element is idioms. In an attempt to define the term idioms, the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics conceptualizes it as "an expression which functions as a single unit and whose meaning cannot be worked out from its separate parts". For example, she washed her hands of the matter means that she refused to have anything more to do with the matter (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p. 270). These idiomatic expressions pose greater understanding problems to non-native speakers. Irujo (1986) proposes three possible explanations for such problems, namely non-literalness, exposure to idioms, and correct use. As for non-literalness, it refers to the idiomatic expressions that have no relation to their real meaning like he spilled the beans has nothing to do with beans or with spilling in its literal sense. Irujo (1986) maintains that "Most idioms also have literal counterparts, which makes them even harder to learn" (p. 236).

In return, language learners may encounter difficulties with literal counterparts in knowing the real meaning. Another problem lies in the small or lack of exposure to idioms because when learners speak a second language, they usually opt for simplified easy choices of expressions and structures. In fact, "learner's exposure to idioms appears mainly in non-interactive situations, where there is no opportunity for negotiation of meaning, rather than in interactive situations which allow learners to clarify meaning and receive feedback on use" (p. 237). Also, learners have a problem with the correct use of idioms. Some factors affect the

correct use of these idioms. Irujo (1986) further adds that “idioms vary in formality from slang (you got it) and colloquialisms (he kicked the bucket) to those which can be used in formal situations (run the risk)” and the fact that “many idioms have grammatical constraints” (p. 237).

- **Proverbs**

A Proverb is defined by English Oxford Living Dictionaries as “a short, well-known pithy saying, stating a general truth or piece of advice”. Learners may find counterparts to such proverbs in their native language or may not. Therefore, when introducing proverbs, teachers must highlight the differences and similarities between proverbs in the target and learners’ native language. Peterson and Coltrane (2003) beheld that “using proverbs as a way to explore culture also provides a way to analyze the stereotypes about and misperceptions of the culture, as well as a way for students to explore the values that are often represented in the proverbs of their native culture” (p. 2).

2.7 Techniques Used to Teach Culture

How to teach cultural awareness and understand the cultural aspect of a language gained much interest from many scholars. Byram (1989), Byram and Esarte-Sarries (1991), Byram and Morgan (1994), and Morgan and Cain (2000) emphasized the need for the teaching of cultural features. Therefore, an interest in providing techniques for teaching cultural awareness evolves. The techniques proposed for teaching cultural awareness are illustrated next.

2.7.1 The Comparison Method

In this method, students compare and contrast the target culture with their own culture. It also focuses on comparing the different features that distinguish one culture due to the ever-changing state of culture from one generation to another (Robinson, 1985). The

teacher starts with a discussion about an aspect of the target culture that is remarkably distinct from the students' local culture. Afterward, the whole discussion focuses on the differences and possible miscommunications and misunderstandings. Another activity used to boost socio-cultural knowledge, sociolinguistic, pragmatic and non-verbal competencies is a comparison of the topic of "school" and all its cultural concepts (school routine, subjects, length of classes, clothes to wear, school buildings, homework, school meals, phrases, and ways of behavior). Pupils of primary and lower secondary school are presented with a short video about a regular British school day. This video includes various socio-cultural knowledge, sociolinguistics, and pragmatic phrases like (greetings, addressing people, polite requests, proper use of please and thank you, formal register). Pupils also get to know non-verbal communication through the video. By the end, pupils can compare and contrast the typical school day in the target culture and their own culture in terms of verbal and non-verbal communication /language.

2.7.2 Culture Assimilators

It is first developed by social psychologists who aim at facilitating cultural learning and cultural adjustment. Students may encounter misunderstandings when interacting cross-culturally due to the lack of cultural knowledge of the target culture. Thus, a short description of such incidents is provided and several explanations for these problems are presented to students to choose from. When students get it wrong, they are assigned to look for the right information themselves. Non-verbal greetings, like cheek kissing, are the best example of causing such misunderstandings. To illustrate, people around the world use the cheek kissing greeting differently, one kiss, two kisses three or four kisses. Social kissing in the UK is rare and there is usually only one kiss. Slovakia, Croatia, Austria, and Spain use two kisses, but it can vary from region to region and also with the gender of the people who kiss. Three kisses are used in the Netherlands, Switzerland, and Belgium. France can vary from region to region

and correspondingly the number of kisses used is between two to four. So learners should know all these variations to avoid misunderstanding or miscommunication.

2.7.3 Culture Capsule

In this technique, the teacher presents activities using visual aids to mark the cultural differences of a custom chosen. Then, learners are given questions about the differences to stimulate classroom interaction and discussion. Such activities help develop socio-cultural knowledge and sociolinguistic and pragmatic competencies. A custom that is commonly discussed is the main meal of the day in the two cultures. In the UK the main meal includes a main course and a pudding and is generally in the evening. Yet, in Slovakia, the main meal is taken during lunchtime and made of soup and a main course. The teacher can show pictures of both meals to better highlight the difference. Then, learners take about the eating habits of each culture and all their aspects and compare and contrast the sociolinguistic and pragmatic phrases employed.

2.7.4 Cultural Island

Using the cultural island technique, the teacher tries to create a culture island atmosphere by putting posters and pictures of actors, singers, films, writers, books, and famous places should on the classroom wall. The aim behind this is to attract learners' attention, evoke comments and questions and maintain the cultural atmosphere. The cultural island emphasizes more on socio-cultural knowledge rather than a linguistic one. Using popular and attractive posters and pictures grab/p learners' attention more than the traditional grammatical ones.

2.7.5 Reformulation

The reformulation technique is about putting a story in other words. The learner tries to retell a story or an incident to a partner or mate using his/her language. During the process of

retelling, the learner becomes conscious of particular features in the target language culture which is called “noticing” (Cullen, 2000). This technique can be used with the aforementioned activities where learners practice their speaking skills and develop their socio-cultural knowledge when retelling. In addition to retelling, noticing is taken as an effective technique too. Learners try to pay attention to and look for the specific features of the topic assigned namely the differences between two cultures in terms of verbal and non-verbal language. So, the methods of reformulation and notice are taken as significant in promoting learners’ socio-cultural knowledge, sociolinguistic, pragmatic and nonverbal competencies.

2.7.6 Prediction

When learners use the prediction technique, it means they can finish a half story, and guess an article or a book content based only on headlines or small pieces of information. This activity is better designed for advanced and adults learners and where they can easily practice socio-cultural knowledge, and also the system of values. Predicting encourages learners to talk and participate in discussions and thus triggers their curiosity and motivation (Cullen, 2000). To elaborate, given a magazine headline like “Brad Pitt, Angelina Jolie to adopt again”, learners will start discussing and guessing what the whole magazine article is about. The topic of adoption can be further discussed with all its cultural perspectives and differences across cultures.

2.7.7 Total Physical Response

The Total Physical Response (TPR) method uses movement or physical activities to teach language. It is designed for learners to react to commands and orders that result in acting out cultural experiences (Hughes, 1986; Pokrivčáková, 2013). It is mainly used with children as they are more open to acting out songs and stories and playing games. In addition, TPR focuses greatly on non-verbal communication because learners learn and interpret the gestures used in various cultures. The priority is on the actions that are prone to have different

meanings culturally like kissing on the cheek, a handshake, thumbs up, a thumb and forefinger sign, shaking of the head, and to name a few. Eventually, learners will be able to use this non-verbal language appropriately.

7.7.8 Role play

Role Play is another common technique used to teach culture. Donahue and Parsons (1982, cited in Brown, 2000) examined the use of role-playing in ESL classrooms as a means of helping students overcome cultural “fatigue”. The results showed that role-play promoted the process of cross-cultural dialogs and opportunities for oral communication. Through role-plays, students can directly experience and easily acquire cultural differences. For example, students can role-play the same situation in the target culture and their own where the cultural differences are shown. They can act out how various groups in society are addressed taking into consideration age, status, and gender (Peterson and Coltrane, 2003). Role-plays are suitable for all levels where learners can learn about real-life situations and intercultural communication.

2.7.9 Problem solving

The problem-solving techniques help improve students’ mastery of the target culture. Due to problem-solving tasks, Liu (2006) was able to draw differences across Eastern and Western contexts about each culture’s relative comfort. Teachers try to motivate their students by categorizing such activities according to the listening content, video, or reading texts to provide more chances for learning and dealing with various cultural features. In this regard, Azizmohammadi & Kazazi (2014) suggest three main techniques to teach culture with problem-solving.

First, “culture aside” where students compare two cultures through a summary when they encounter new terms culturally loaded. Second, the slice-life technique is used to enable students to compare two scenarios on a cultural aspect in two different cultures. to illustrate,

students are given problematic situations in which they act differently in the same situation according to the two cultures. Afterward, students get to learn cultural features naturally out of a discussion on it. Third, the last technique proposed is “critical incident”. It deals with the mutual misunderstanding and miscommunication that may happen in the two cultures. Then, students analyze and comment on the situation and people’s reactions, and the cultural values and behaviors involved. These techniques have been proven to be of higher contribution to raising students’ awareness of cultural differences.

2.7.10 Treasure Hunt

The treasure hunt technique is based on research about items such as people's dates, and events in a news or magazine article. To level up their interest, students have the freedom to search for an item related to the target culture of their choice where they present it as a project with posters and discussions.

2.7.11 Drama

Drama is used as a technique to engage learners in direct encounters of cross-cultural misunderstandings. Students act out an example of cultural miscommunication in the form of dramatization. That is, they act out short scenes of problems and misinterpretations that happen in the target culture and the local culture. By the end, students clarify and highlight the main causes of such cultural misunderstandings.

2.7.12 Newspapers

Teachers use the technique of the newspaper for comparison purposes. Students are asked to compare a chosen item found in the foreign newspapers with a similar item in their newspapers. According to Blatchford (1986), newspapers could be vehicles for cultural teaching despite their discouraging side effects on students due to cultural interference and language difficulties. Yet, Blatchford (1986) claims that the technique of the newspaper can

contribute to and easily help in the acquisition of cultural knowledge when teachers help and guide through the process.

2.7.13 Projected Media

Projected media comprises films, filmstrips, and slides. Krasner (1999) believes that teaching the culture of a foreign language using films and news broadcast represent one of the useful techniques and methods of culture teaching. Teachers use it to present valuable cultural knowledge and insights in a form of classroom activities. Kukulska-Hulme (2010) and Lee (2009) suggest watching movies, listening to audiobooks and podcasts, making a film, or creating podcasts contribute to learners' construction of cultural knowledge on their own.

2.8 The Use of Technology and Authentic Materials in Teaching Culture

Teaching culture is essential in teaching a foreign language. Chastain (1988) denotes that language is used to convey meaning, but the meaning is determined by culture. the bound is clear but how to effectively teach it is still under study/confusion. Teachers agree that the teaching of language and culture is non-negotiable but the materials and what to include are. First, teachers have to understand and set the objectives. In this regard, Tavares and Cavalcanti (1996) state that the aim of teaching culture is to increase students' awareness and to develop their curiosity about the target culture and their own culture, helping them to make comparisons among cultures. Indeed, these comparisons help develop students' empathy and positive attitudes across cultures.

The use of role-plays and simulations help reinforce the practice of cultural forms and behaviors appropriately. To know more about the target culture features like the community's everyday life and routines different culture-specific realia is used. Realia is a term used in language teaching which means the "actual objects and items which are brought into a classroom as examples or as aids to be talked or written about and used in teaching" (Richards & Schmidt 2010: 485). Language teachers must employ real objects photographs, kitchen

tools, articles of clothing, souvenirs, musical instruments, or even food and discuss their cultural relevance in the classroom

So, teaching culture requires the use of authentic materials. Peterson and Coltrane (2003) pertain that exposing students to authentic materials helps foreign language learners gain real cultural experiences. These authentic materials may consist of TV shows, news broadcasts, films, the use of different websites, or printed materials such as travel brochures, photographs, newspapers, magazines, restaurant menus, etc. such materials are offered to different levels from beginner to the proficiency level. Learners of different levels can watch and listen to authentic audio-visual materials to explore cultural conventions found in greetings, for example. Tasks related to watching or listening to such materials may be completing diagrams, charts, or outlines. Then, a discussion may be held around the cultural norms, features, and behaviors verbal or non-verbal of that target culture. This way, learners will be more motivated to engage themselves in cultural practices.

In addition, during the process of foreign language teaching-learning teachers make use of different materials to facilitate learning, not to mention when culture is included. The right cultural knowledge must be wisely selected due to the time limits allocated in each class. Materials used to strengthen and raise students' awareness about cultural differences are devices like smart phones, laptops, and computers as well as web 2.0 technologies. Moore (2006) advocates for the use of technology because students may become more engaged with authentic cultural content they can access and explore freely, which allows teachers to tailor digital media to make cultural learning more relevant and accessible to the students in their classroom.

2.9 The Importance of Culture in Language Learning

Theories of language teaching have changed and gained a sociolinguistic framework, however, a socio-cultural focus per se is scarce. Culture, as Vahdany (2005) mentions, “has

always been touched but not hugged dearly enough: its relevance and contribution to language teaching has grown blurred and mystic”(p.93). Indeed, scholars such as Chastain (1988) and alike support the idea of teaching language alongside its culture. Brown (2007b) emphasized the integration of culture into foreign language teaching. He pertains that teaching should include not only the language but also the cultural customs, values, ways of thinking, and acting. Culture is so important that scholars call it the fifth language skill; however, Kramersch (1993) goes even further by saying that: “Culture in language learning is not an expendable fifth skill tacked on, so to speak, to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. It is always in the background right from day one, ready to unsettle the good language learners when they expect it least, making evident the limitations of their hard-won communicative competence, challenging the ability to make sense of the world around them”(1993, p.1).

Moreover, the importance of teaching culture is pivotal because language does not exist apart from culture, that is, from the socially inherited assemblage of practices and beliefs that determines the texture of our lives (Sapir, 1970, p.207). Thus, language teachers ‘language teachers need to go beyond monitoring linguistic production in the classroom and become aware of the complex and numerous processes of intercultural mediation that any foreign language learner undergoes...’ (Buttjes,1990, p. 55-56). Language is not an autonomous institute but rather a system of practices and socio-political processes (Bourdieu, 1990, p.52). So, since the aim of language teaching is to improve learners’ communication and teaching culture alongside is inevitable. Samovar, Porter, and Jain (1981: 24) pertain that culture and communication are inseparable because culture not only dictates who talks to whom, about what, and how the communication proceeds, it also helps to determine how people encode messages, the meanings they have for messages, and the conditions and circumstances under which various messages may or may not be sent, noticed, or interpreted. Culture is the foundation of communication.

2.10 Importance of Teaching Culture to Students

According to the National Standards for Foreign Language Education Project (1996), students cannot fully master a new language until they have mastered the cultural context in which the new language occurs. In other words, the understanding of a new culture is mandatory for successful second language acquisition because culture is an integral part of the language. In explaining the bound, Kramsch (1993) maintains that “language reveals cultural reality; to speak is to express facts and ideas and people’s attitudes” (p.3). Also, language reflects cultural reality. People express meanings to their experiences when communicating. Moreover, language is a set of symbols holding cultural reality. People’s identity is shown through language.

As far as Tomalin and Stempleski (1993), teaching culture is vital for the student’s understanding because it helps them realize that all people show behaviors that are culturally bound. Students understand that people’s behaviors and practices are influenced by social variables like age, sex status, and place of residence. Learning about the target’s language culture raises students’ awareness of the conventional behaviors in common situations of that culture and the cultural meaning of words and expressions. In addition, students develop the skill of evaluating, building generalizations of support, and locating and organizing information about the target culture. Finally, knowledge of the target culture encourages students to build empathy and simulates their intellectual curiosity and interest in the people of the target culture.

Conclusion

This chapter involves a review of how language is taught about culture. It starts with reviewing the cultural content in foreign language classrooms and the objective set in the culture teaching-learning process. Then, the different ways and approaches suggested for

teaching culture are stated. Thereafter, this chapter provides an explanation of the term intercultural competence and its main components. Also, cultural knowledge sources and techniques used for teaching culture are mentioned. Finally, the importance of culture in language learning and for students is lastly discussed.

CHAPTER THREE

Listening Comprehension and Culture

Chapter Three: Listening Comprehension and Culture

Introduction

As aforementioned, the teaching of culture is paramount to the mastery of the foreign language, specifically the acquisition of the four skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking). For example, teaching culture is important in developing the learners' listening skills. Harmer (2001) maintains that foreign language learners find it easy to understand the listening text when they are familiar with the target language culture. However, the listening skill itself is not well recognized, not to mention the integration of culture. So, the listening skill in light of cultural teaching is to be reviewed next.

3.1 Listening

The skill of listening is often misunderstood and contrasted with hearing, so the distinction is worth mentioning. According to Lundsteen (000), hearing and listening are dissimilar. On the one hand, hearing is a physical activity and is related to our physiological ability to receive and process sounds (1979, p. xv). If one has hearing problems, this can affect his ability to listen. On the other hand, listening is a mental act that has to do with attributing meaning to the stimuli our brain receives. To listen is to relate “meaning to the aural symbols perceived” (Nichols and Lewis, 1954, p.1). While “to listen” is rooted in terms that connote attention and silent obedience, “to hear” has more to do with the perception of sound and the faculties of the ear.

There are many attempts proposed to the term listening. Each definition represents a different approach and perspective. However, the majority of scholars agree on the fact that listening is a multidimensional construct that comprises complex processes namely, affective, behavioral, and cognitive (Halone, Cunconan, Coakley, and Wolvin, 1998). To illustrate,

Table 2 below represents the various attempts to conceptualize the term listening with regard to these three categories.

Table 2

Sample of Listening Definitions (Worthington and Bodie, 2018, p.4)

<u>Author</u>	<u>Year</u>	<u>Definition</u>
Tucker	1925	An analysis of the impressions resulting from concentration where an effort of will is required.
Rankin	1926	The ability to understand spoken language
Nicholas	1948	The comprehension of expository materials presented orally in a classroom situation
Barbe & Meyers	1954	The process of reacting to, interpreting, and relating the spoken language in terms of past experiences and further course of action.
Brown and Carlson	1955	The aural assimilation of spoken symbols in a face-to-face speaker audience situation, with both oral and visual cues present.
Barbara	1957	A definite, usually voluntary, effort to apprehend acoustically.
Spearritt	1962	The active process involved in attach[ing] meaning to sounds
Barker	1971	The selective process of attending to, hearing, understanding, and remembering aural symbols.
Weaver	1972	A process that takes place when a human organism receives data orally. The selection and retention of aurally received data
Kelly	1975	A rather definite and deliberative ability to hear information, to analyze it, to recall it at a later time, and to draw conclusions from it.
Steil et al.	1983	Consists of four connected activities – sensing, interpreting,

		evaluating, and responding.
Wolff et al.	1983	A unitary-receptive communication process of hearing and selecting, assimilating and organizing, and retaining and covertly responding to aural and nonverbal stimuli.
Wovin & Coakley	1988	The process of receiving, attending to, and assigning meaning to aural stimuli.
Brownell	1994	An overt behavior that conceptualizes the teaching and training process
ILA	1996	The process of receiving, constructing meaning from and responding to spoken and/or nonverbal messages.
Cooper	1997	Listening competency means behavior that is appropriate and effective. Appropriateness means that the content is understood and effectiveness deals with the achievement of interactive goals.
de Ruyter & Wetzels	2000	[as perceived by customers] A set of interrelated activities, including apparent attentiveness, nonverbal behaviors, verbal behavior, perceived attitudes, memory and behavioral responses.
Bostrom	2011	The acquisition, process, and retention of information in the interpersonal context.

As concluded from the definitions in the table above, scholars emphasize at least one of the three categories (e.g., ILA 1996 and Steil et al., 1983 as cited in Worthington and Bodie, 2018). Firstly, the affective component of the process of listening comprises the individual's perceptions of listening and to what extent a listening activity is motivated and enjoyable. Individual perceptions and views can affect comprehension and understanding of the listening activity. Second, the behavior process includes verbal and non-verbal responses. That is, listening behaviors can be non-verbal actions such as eye contact and verbal like

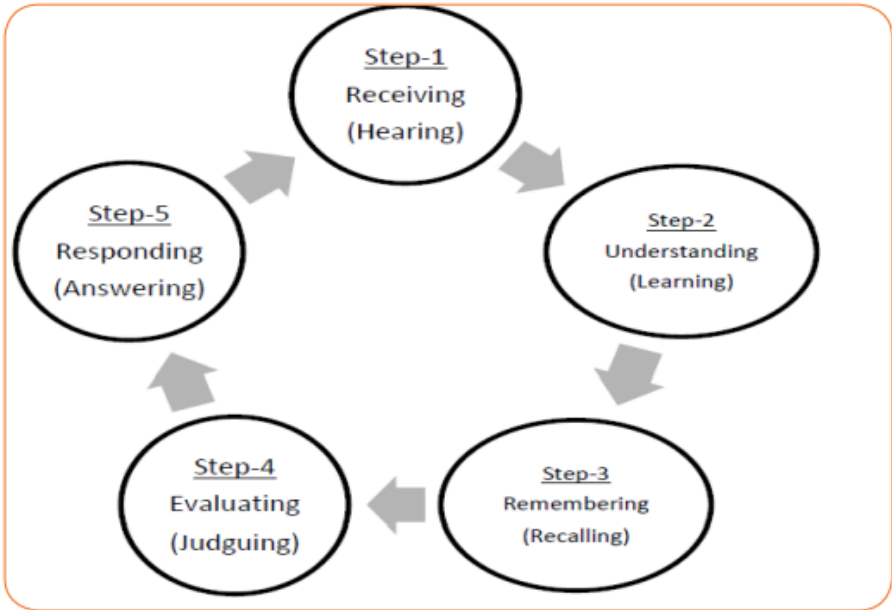
asking questions to grab attention and interest. The listeners' feedback indicates that listening took place. Lastly, the cognitive component has to do with the internal processes that enable individuals to attend, understand, receive, interpret, and evaluate spoken messages. It supports the fact that listening is an information processing activity constituting a fixed set of practices. These practices can be trained and developed.

3.2 Stages of Listening Skill

Listening is considered an active skill that goes through a process to achieve meaning. When listening, the learner combines what he/she hears/listens to with background information. Referring to Helgesen (2003), listening is an active process because meaning is created via the incorporation of what we hear or experience with the data inside our minds. This listening process is composed of five stages, namely receiving, understanding, remembering, evaluating, and responding (Tyagi, 2013) as shown in the figure below.

Figure 3

The Listening Process Stages (Tyagi, 2013)



3.2.1 Receiving

Receiving involves the perception of sounds. In order to effectively collect information, one must be able to hear and identify the speech sounds of the listening material targeted.

3.2.2 Understanding

The understating stage of listening refers to the ability to comprehend the symbols heard and seen and determine the context and the meaning of the words uttered by the speaker; this process is the decoding/ examining of information. It involves the perception of the stimuli received.

3.2.3 Remembering

It entails that the listener received, understood, and eventually stored the information in the brain's stockpile. It occurs when the listener categorizes and retains the speaker's message for future access.

3.2.4 Evaluating

Evaluating or assessing information requires the listener to be able to critically assess the message perceived qualitatively and quantitatively. By the end, the listener starts to form his own opinion after fully grasping the speaker's message.

3.2.5 Responding

Responding is the last stage of the listening process where the listener provides a verbal or nonverbal response as a sort of feedback to the information received

3.3 Listening Comprehension

It may seem that listening can be synonymous to listening comprehension, but they are not alike. In fact, many scholars suggest that listening comprehension is a higher-order skill that requires multiple language (vocabulary) and cognitive skills (Florit, Roch, & Levorato, 2013; Kim, in press; Kim & Phillips, 2014; Lepola, Lynch, Laakkonen, Silven, & Niemi,

2012; Tompkins, Guo, & Justice, 2013). It has been taken as a basic language skill that is needed to be developed in FL classroom. Ahmadi (2016) maintains that listening comprehension is the processes of understanding the spoken language. Understanding includes speech sounds, comprehending the meaning of words and the syntactic structure of sentences (Nadig, 2013). Another definition is proposed by Sariçoban (1999) who claims that listening comprehension skill means being able to identify and comprehend the message of an oral discourse . This includes the perception of the sender's accent, pronunciation and vocabulary.

Similarly, Rost (2001) believes that this skill refers to the coordination of all the skill components and not only isolated units. That is, distinguishing sounds, words, and grammatical group of each word. He further adds that it is a process where the receiver tries to comprehend and construct the intended meaning the sender is conveying. LC is a communicative skill. Based on the concepts above, LC requires a sender, a spoken message /discourse and a receiver. The sender and receiver are two individuals communicating in the same or foreign language in which response happens in the target language. This scenario takes place in FL classrooms where learners are given prompts and stimuli to boost their listening skills.

It is true that the definitions suggested to the term listening comprehension vary among different scholars, but they all agree that this skill is an indivisible mental process, which enables language learners understand oral texts (Rost, 2002). In the process, listeners “listeners must discriminate between sounds, understand vocabulary and grammatical structures, interpret stress and intonation, understand intention and retain and interpret this within the immediate as well as the larger socio-cultural context of the utterance (Rost, 2002, p.7).

Likewise, Brown and Yule (1983) simply put that that listening comprehension refers to the person's ability to understand the speech he/she heard. Dirven and Oakeshott-Taylor (1984) see it as the result of teaching methodology which is related to conditions like speech understanding, spoken language understanding, speech recognition and speech perception.

The term "listening comprehension" has been defined by different authors. Rost (2002) and Hamouda (2013) believe that listening comprehension is an interactive process viz. listeners try to construct meaning and comprehend the spoken message (oral input) via verbal or non verbal clues for example, distinguishing sound, grammatical structures, stress and intonation and most importantly relying on previous knowledge. In the same vein, Nadig (2013), defined it as the different processes involved to help understanding and making sense of spoken language through knowing the meaning of separate words, speech sounds, and the syntactic structures of the spoken sentences.

Listeners are able to identify and understand speech including, the speakers' accent/pronunciation, grammar vocabulary and meaning (capable of doing all of these simultaneously) (Howatt and Dakin, 1974). O'Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989 as cited in Pourhossein Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011) pertain that listening comprehension as an active process. Listeners use clues from background knowledge, contextual information and various resources to carry out the task assigned.

3.4 Components of Listening Comprehension

In an attempt to explore and cover the aspect of the term listening comprehension, Chastain (1988) suggested four components for it. First of all, listening comprises the individual's ability to distinguish and compare all sounds, intonation patterns, and voice qualities of the target language and the local/native language. Understanding the entire spoken utterances constitutes the second component. Rivers (1981) claims that to understand the aural message listeners have to comprehend the semantic meaning of the message. When the

message is hard to understand, one can rely on what he/she comprehends in the sound sequence vis-a-vis syntactic knowledge. The third component includes ones' ability to keep the message heard in the auditory memory until it is processed. In this case, teachers are required to have learners listen to messages as possible to promote their auditory memory. For example, teachers should adjust the content and the speed of delivery according to the learners' levels and their ability to understand (Chastain, 1988).

Finally, comprehension is the fourth component. Comprehension revolves around speech reception in terms of syntax, lexicon, pragmatic, and discourse. To achieve this, four steps must take place. First, the listening content must be contextualized. Authentic language requires a communicative framework the listener is aware of to recreate the oral message. Second, listeners relate to the background knowledge relevant and employ it to predict the meaning of the message. Third, listeners anticipate the overall content of the spoken message. They try to guess what is coming and make an unexpected and immediate interpretation (Kaspar, 1984). At last, the final step is to illustrate the main ideas of the listening material and its components. To make up for their lack of background knowledge, listeners should dedicate more energy to understanding and rely more on linguistic clues. Also, this step uses samples to confirm or reject the anticipations already made, so if the samples are not in accordance with their anticipations, the anticipations should be reconsidered (Kasper, 1984).

The successful acquisition of language is dependent on meaningful intake (Krashen 1987). The auditory channel is the principal channel for this meaningful intake to happen. Thus, the components of this auditory channel particularly listening comprehension are needed to be examined and discussed in detail. According to James (1984), listening comprehension is divided into the following components.

3.4.1 The Sonic Realization

The actual physical ‘hearing’ of language is considered the sonic aspect of listening. Everyone who is physically sane and does not have any physical impairment in the auditory channel can distinguish human sounds as language and non-language, for instance yawning, gargling, belching, and clearing the throat. People are even able to recognize a specific language via hearing even if they do not speak it.

3.4.2 The Segmental /Supra-Segmental Form

Being able to recognize a language when hearing it results in the segmental/ supra-segmental form. To achieve meaning when listening in a second language, the listener must differentiate the phonemes of that language. The purpose of the majority of dialogues in textbooks is to introduce and practice the segments of sounds and their patterns in the language

3.4.3 The Musical Pitch and Rhythm

Musical pitch and rhythm deal with knowing the difference between a given utterance is a question or an order. They emphasize on the fact that speakers in the oral text not only deliver a language but they also reveal truths about themselves. This is rather shown by the way they speak not by what they speak. Speakers exchange/transmit intentionally or unintentionally disgust, pleasure, irony, age, gender and their social status. This information about the speakers is therefore transmitted to learners/ listeners.

3.4.4 The Lexical Phrasing

It refers to the order of particular words and phrases to deliver a message. The order is not always due to the grammatical function of the words because word order can be flexible. This is reflected in the segmental and supra-segmental form and in the pitch and rhythm for example, in questions, falling intonation and rising intonation cannot be spoken/listened to in

the same way even if the structure of the question is identical. Also, speakers may alternate the word of the sentences and use fronting to show emphasis. Although such alternative is overlooked in traditional grammar, learners inevitably will ponder upon the position of the elements in the sentences heard before the topic is tackled

3.4.5 The Purpose of the Message Intended by the Speaker and the Actualization of the Message in the Listener

In listening assignments, speakers and listeners have different intentions. Speakers are loaded with the intention of delivering a message (purpose) whereas listeners are driven by the need to react to what they hear /the speaker's speech (experience). Indeed, when we speak, we transfer many information through our speech. For instance, our speech is purposive because we ask a question to get an answer, we give a command to have a particular action performed, we praise to make someone feel good, or we curse to make someone feel bad. Eventually, all of this information is transmitted to the listener. The speaker's intention and message is retrieved (actualized) by the listener. If this is not the case, listening and speaking become meaningless.

3.5 Listening Comprehension Process

As part of the comprehension process, schemata are mandatory. Schemata are the data structures that demonstrate the general concepts and the related information stored in memory. It is the abstract knowledge a listener uses to understand the meaning of the text given. The listener rely / extract on this knowledge (schema) to help understand the text and the activation of schemata. Consequently, three basic modes of information prevail namely, Bottom-up processing, top-down processing and interactive processing, which are to be illustrated in details next (Pourhosein Gilakjani and Ahmadi, 2011).

The process of listening comprehension is an active and conscious effort where meaning is constructed via cues built on contextual information and background knowledge. To fulfill the requirements of the task, listeners use various strategic resources (O'Malley, Chamot & Kupper, 1989). These "strategic resources" can be categorized into three processes which are bottom-up, top-down, and interactive processing which is a combination of the previous two processes.

3.5.1 Bottom-up Process

When listening, Learners' main focus is shifted to key words /phrases, which results in constructing meaning through the gradual combination of these phonemes (Vandergrift, 2004). The bottom up process is concerned with the listener's linguistic knowledge. It is activated by the new input. Schemata are formed from the most specific at the bottom to the most general at the top. Following a bottom up order, listeners try to decode and connect the phonemic units to form words, words are connected to construct phrases, phrases are connected to construct utterances and utterances are combined to construct meaningful text (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). This entails that meaning is achieved by the end of the process (as last step). The perfect candidates for this process are beginners because it helps them familiarize and draw their attention to phonemic knowledge used to understand the spoken language (Khuziakhmetov and Porchesku, 2016).

3.5.2 Top-Down Process

The top-down listening process deals with the listener's previous knowledge of the topic and relating it with the listening content heard (Newton and Nation, 2020). The listener uses stored input /contextual information to comprehend what he/she hears. Context means knowledge of the topic of the speech itself, the speaker(s) and their relation with the setting. That is, in order to understand the real meaning of the speech, the listener actively constructs and reconstructs the meaning intended via relating it with their background knowledge

(engaging /connecting their input with the new output) (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). The importance of this process lies in its use of already existing knowledge to make up for problems of perception (Field, 2004). Nevertheless, it is used for a short term and its use in improving listening proficiency is born out (Wallace, 2012).

3.5.3 Interactive Process

The interactive process is a combination between the bottom-up and top-down processes. These two processes should be combined together to develop listening comprehension. The listener will find it easy to comprehend if using background knowledge, contextual information and linguistic information all combined together. When the listener is not familiar with the content of the listening text, listener cannot retrieve any background information because the speakers' meaning behind the message is incompatible with the listener's schema (Gilakjani and Sabouri 2016). By this, the listener is only able to rely on linguistic knowledge (lexical and syntactic) to understand the meaning intended (Pourhosein Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). Consequently, according to Chiu (2006) and Gilakjani and Sabouri (2016), it is advised that both processes to be connected in the teaching of listening comprehension where language /word focused listening and meaning –focused listening are taught simultaneously (Newton and Nation, 2020).

3.6 Listening Comprehension Strategies

In order to develop listening strategies, teacher are required to work on their learners' lexicon, grammar and phonology first (Goh, 2000). The teaching of listening comprehension strategies is of paramount importance for the training of listening where learners are able to evaluate their own understanding and their achievement (Vandergrift, 1999). As for the types of listening comprehension strategies, researchers namely Conrad (1985), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Rost and Ross (1991) and Azmi Bingol, Celik, Yidliz, and Tugrul Mart

(2014) suggested three strategies, which are cognitive, meta-cognitive and socio-affective. These strategies are adjusted according to the level of learners.

3.6.1 Cognitive Strategies

The cognitive strategy, being a problem-solving method, has a close connection with the input. It deals with understanding and storing the input received in short or long-term memory to be used and extracted/evoked when needed. As far as Azmi Bingol, Celik, Yidliz, & Tugrul Mart (2014), learners apply cognitive strategy to help them overcome learning of knowledge problems. By means of conceptualizing the term cognitive strategy, Derry and Murphy (1986) claim that a cognitive strategy is a problem-solving technique that learners employ to help them acquire new knowledge or skill. Sharing the same view, Brown, and Palincsar (1982) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Abdalhamid (2012) confirm that cognitive strategies are connected to activities used for learning and they include direct employment of constantly changing learning materials.

Goh (1998) maintains that cognitive strategies are used by learners themselves to assist their process, store and remember new input or information. The Bottom-up and top-down strategies are the two parts of cognitive strategies. To start with, activities featuring the bottom-up strategy type comprise word for word translation, adjusting the speech rate, drilling (repeating the oral text), and focusing on prosodic features of the text at hand. Yet, the top-down strategy activities are forecasting, guessing, explaining, and visualization. The top-down strategy fits more advanced learners (Conrad, 1985; Tsui & Fullilove, 1998; O'Malley, Chamot, & Kupper, 1989; Abdalhamid, 2012).

In this regard, many studies are conducted on the listening study used by learners. For example, a think-aloud procedure is used to examine the listening strategies of university students in learning Spanish. The findings revealed that the most strategy used by participants in the cognitive. It also showed that the meta-cognitive strategy is more used by females than

males. The results showed that listening is easy because learners applied several strategies, ability and flexibility in modifying strategies, stimulation, self-control, and sufficient use of prior knowledge (Abdalhamid, 2012).

3.6.2 Meta-Cognitive Strategy

Rubin (1988) defined meta-cognitive strategies as management techniques learners use to control their learning via checking, assessing, planning, and changing. Planning in this strategy is aimed at knowing the intended purpose of the listening task where listeners apply specific features of the spoken message input (prior knowledge) to better comprehend the received input (the new knowledge). In this case, students are aware /familiar when exposed to the listening task /text (Holden, 2004 Azmi Bingol, Celik, Yildiz, and Tugrul Mart 2014). This strategy is advantageous in the sense that it helps learners plan, monitor, and evaluate the new input. Wenden (1998) Supports the idea that using a meta-cognitive strategy can promote the learners' pace of learning, self-confidence, and self-evaluation. Similarly, Salataci (2002) highlighted that using a meta-cognitive strategy in listening boosts learners' self-confidence, motivation, and ability to complete the task assigned.

As stated by Baker and Brown (1984) and Abdalhamid (2012), the meta-cognitive strategy used in listening comprehension is of two types viz. knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition. Whereas knowledge of cognition means that the learner is aware of what is happening, regulation of cognition has to do with the things learners should do to reach effective listening. Thus, The difference between skilled and less-skilled listeners can be detected via the application of the meta-cognitive strategy (Bacon, 1992; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Goh 2000; Vandergrift, 2003; and Abdalhamid, 2012).To illustrate, to be a skilled listener, one must utilize more repair strategies to stay focused on the task whenever they are distracted (O'Malley et al., 1989). Skilled listeners applied twice as many meta-

cognitive strategies compared to less-skilled listeners (Vandergrift, 2003 and Abdelhamid, 2012).

The use of meta-cognitive strategies according to Henner Stanchina (1987) is vital to developing listening comprehension skills. Henner Stanchina (1987) maintained that Skilled listeners can activate their prior knowledge whenever they detect their failure in comprehending. Also, they can constantly explain the aural message via several skills which are:

- utilizing their prior knowledge and predictions to create theories on the text;
- connecting new information with their continuing predictions;
- making deductions to fill comprehension breaks;
- assessing their predictions;
- improving their theories

3.6.3 Socio-Affective Strategies

According to Vandergrift (2003) and Abdalhamid (2012), socio-affective strategies are methods used by listeners for many reasons namely, to cooperate with others, to check their comprehension, and to reduce their apprehension. Social and affective strategies, compared to the other listening strategies, are considered the most effective in the learning context (O'Malley and Chamot, 1987). The learning situation /context along with the social-psychological factors are connected in which they can impact the learners listening understanding, for instance, when learners are less anxious, this can affect their listening performance (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993). Aneiro (1989) confirmed that the use of effective strategies can improve learners' listening comprehension achievement and facilitate the understanding of the listening text. Therefore, based on the view that socio-affective strategies help improve the students' interactions skills and affect their reactions towards

learning (Wilson, 2003), it is advised that students be more aware of strategies on how to reduce anxiety and raise their self-confidence and motivation to improve their listening comprehension skills (Habte-Gabr, 2006).

3.7 The Importance of Listening

Foreign language learners tend to overlook listening skills and prioritize speaking over being productive thinking that the mastery of a productive skill is the key to language proficiency in the foreign language (Nuna, 1998). This belief has a notable impact on foreign language courses and syllabi where listening is underestimated and its role as a source of input and communication is not greatly emphasized. In this respect, Vandergrift (2007) states that “Listening comprehension lies at the heart of language learning, but it is the least understood and least researched skill.” (p.191). In the same vein, Nation and Newton (2009) highlight the fact that [...] “We often take the importance of listening for granted, and it is arguably the least understood and most overlooked of the four skills [...] in the language classroom.”(p.37). These statements show that these authors urge the importance of listening as a tool to improve learners’ communicative competence via incorporating linguistics elements and introducing authentic discourse (Richards, 2008).

To support this view, Nunan (1998) beholds that listening is a crucial skill to language learning and attaining effective communication is heavily dependent on it viz., most of the foreign language interaction time (50%) is dedicated to listening. Harmer (1998) considers listening as the best source of topics and varieties of oral exchanges for students’ language acquisition. Students must not only learn grammar, and vocabulary, but also pronunciation, rhythm, intonation, pitch, and stress. Similarly, Rost (2001) and Vandergrift (2011) maintain that it is a fundamental skill to reach the mastery of a second language and a means to process language in real-time (Rost, 2001) because it internalizes language rules and favors the development of other language skills (Vandergrift, 2011).

All in all, given the previous view towards listening, the importance of listening is undeniable in the FL teaching-learning process. Listening represents the best source of real-life contexts and authentic spoken discourse that help learn pronunciation, stress, rhythm, and intonation. Listening is important because it ensures a great exposure to new vocabulary and grammatical structures used in real-life contexts. These considerations encourage the development of this skill which can impact their linguistics, effective, professional, and social abilities.

3.8 Teaching Listening Comprehension

The teaching of the listening skill did not receive much attention in language teaching programs until the 1970s (Rost, 1990; Richards, 2005). The input received when in the listening tasks has an immense impact on learners being ability to communicate effectively. The input received from the listening task is of immense paramount for developing communicative skills in social contexts (Vandergrift, 1997; Rost, 1994). Consequently, teaching listening comprehension is necessary for learning to take place because listening lessons are “are a vehicle for teaching elements of grammatical structure and allow new vocabulary items to be contextualized within a body of communicative discourse” (Morley, 2001, p. 70). Consequently, teachers of foreign languages started to shift their attention to the listening skill inside the classroom (Rubin, 1994). In a listening class, teachers have to be aware of the different stages their listening classes go through so that they can meet their students’ listening comprehension objectives (Field, 2008; Richards, 2005). These stages are to be discussed in detail next.

- ***Stages of Listening Comprehension in the Classroom***

The listening comprehension in a listening lesson goes through different phases. As stated by Flowerdew and Miller (2005), there are three main stages in a listening lesson which

are pre-listening, while listening, and post-listening. (Figure 4 and Figure 5 below are adapted from Field, 2008, p.17) and they summarize the changing format of listening lessons over the years

Figure 4

Early Format of Listening Lesson (Field, 2008 p.17)

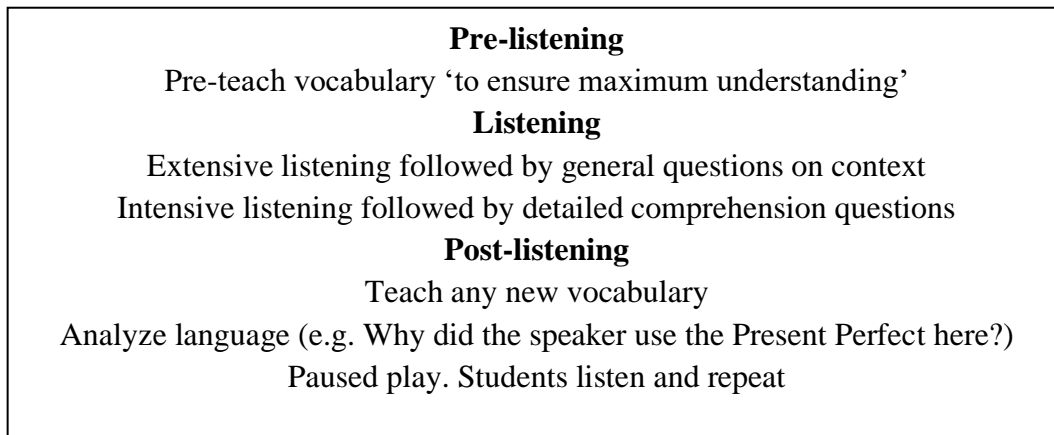
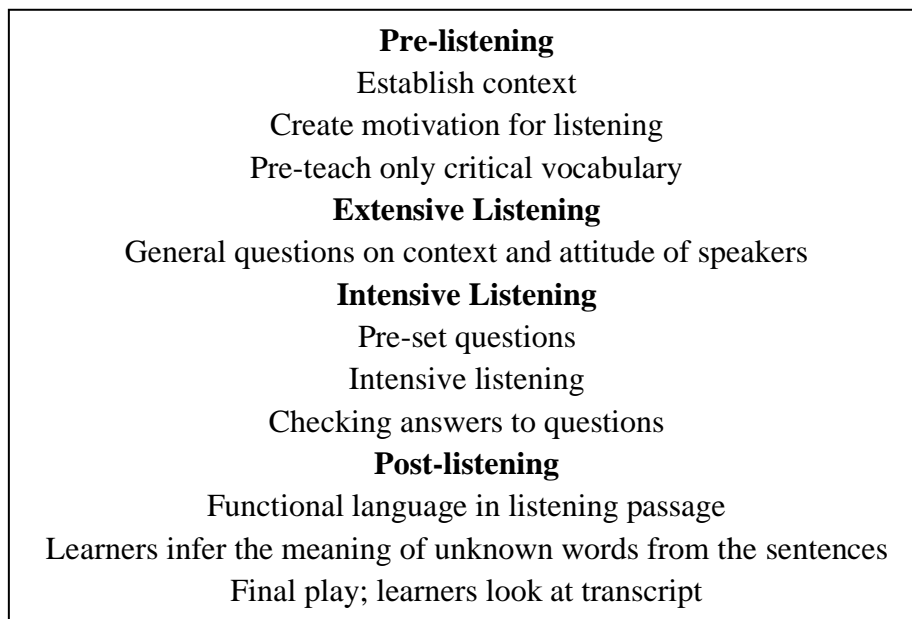


Figure 5

Current Format of Listening Lesson (Field, 2008 p.17)



The above figures show the different stages a typical listening lesson contains, namely pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening.

a. Pre-Listening. The pre-listening stage aims at preparing students to achieve the most from listening. Students are prepared for the tasks they perform during the listening. According to Richards (2005), this phase comprises tasks that can help activate learners' previous knowledge and learning of vocabulary. Unlike the old format, the current format emphasizes the teaching of only critical vocabulary as part of the pre-listening activities. Filed (2008) three main reasons why the teaching of unknown words is not recommended in this stage. To start with, teaching unknown vocabulary is time-consuming. Instead of wasting time explaining the unknown words, teachers can just play again the listening material to the learners. Teachers are not advised to teach unknown vocabulary because this listening is different from real-life listening where students have to understand the words at the time of speaking. Lastly, teaching words without mentioning their importance in the texts is irrelevant. This will lead to the teaching of form rather than meaning. Thus, the field stressed the idea of teaching only words of great importance for students to be able to understand the listening text.

b. While-Listening. The purpose of the while listening phase is to challenge and guide students to be able to grasp the information well and recognize the speakers' attitudes during the listening. When comparing the old and the current format of while-listening, no change in extensive listening is marked except in the structure of the activities (figure 2). For students to follow and understand the text, activities are more targeted and specific than before. Examples of listening activities in the while-listening stage are listening for gist and sequencing to help learners in comprehending the text.

c. Post-Listening. The post-listening part of the listening lesson is used for learners to practice their grammar learned ahead. Learners get to know the expression and functions of language generally found in conversation such as offering, refusing, and apologizing. These functions are only taught best in their real context, thus teachers can shift their students' attention to such functions in the post-listening stage. By the end, students can have a discussion and express their opinions about the topic heard. Simply put, students after listening start reflecting on the language in terms of sounds, grammar, vocabulary...etc. Afterward, they apply their understanding and interpretations.

3.9 Macro and Micro Listening Skills

Listening skills are divided into macro and micro-skills. According to Rivers and Temperly (1978), the final objective of listening is achieving macro-language use. That is, "the learning of elements of language and their potential combinations" and further stated, "Micro-language learning is only a means to this end" (p. 92). In this regard, Richards (1983) distinguished three types of listening to a component interaction (e.g., 17 conversational listenings); listening for information or lectures (academic listening); and listening for pleasure (e.g., radio, television, movies). Richards (1983, p.219 -240) identified more detailed checklists of micro-skills of conversational and academic listening, which are represented in the tables below.

Table 3

Listening Micro-Skills for Conversational Listening (Richards, 1983, p.219-240)

Micro-Skills: Conversational Listening
1. Ability to retain chunks of language of different lengths for short periods.
2. Ability to discriminate among the distinctive sounds of the target language.
3. Ability to recognize the stress patterns of words.
4. Ability to recognize the rhythmic structure of English.
5. Ability to recognize the functions of stress and intonation to signal the information structure of utterances.
6. Ability to identify words in stressed and unstressed positions.
7. Ability to recognize reduced forms of words.

8. Ability to distinguish word boundaries.
9. Ability to recognize typical word order patterns in the target language.
10. Ability to recognize vocabulary used in core conversational topics.
11. Ability to detect key words (i.e., those which identify topics and propositions).
12. Ability to guess the meanings of words from the contexts in which they occur.
13. Ability to recognize grammatical word classes (parts of speech).
14. Ability to recognize major syntactic patterns and devices.
15. Ability to recognize cohesive devices in spoken discourse.
16. Ability to recognize elliptical forms of grammatical units and sentences.
17. Ability to detect sentence constituents.
18. Ability to distinguish between major and minor constituents.
19. Ability to detect meanings expressed in differing grammatical forms/sentence types (i.e., that a particular meaning may be expressed in different ways).
20. Ability to recognize the communicative functions of utterances, according to situations, participants, goals.
21. Ability to reconstruct or infer situations, goals, participants, procedures.
22. Ability to use real world knowledge and experience to work out purposes, goals, settings, procedures.
23. Ability to predict outcomes from events described.
24. Ability to infer links and connections between events.
25. Ability to deduce causes and effects from events.
26. Ability to distinguish between literal and implied meanings.
27. Ability to identify and reconstruct topics and coherent structure from ongoing discourse involving two or more speakers.
28. Ability to recognize markers of coherence in discourse, and to detect such relations as main idea, supporting idea, given information, new information, generalization, exemplification.
29. Ability to process speech at different rates.
30. Ability to process speech containing pauses, errors, corrections.
31. Ability to make use of facial, paralinguistic, and other clues to work out meanings.
32. Ability to adjust listening strategies to different kinds of listener purposes or goals.
33. Ability to signal comprehension or lack of comprehension, verbally and nonverbally.

Table 4

Listening Micro-skills for Academic Listening (Richards, 1983, p.219-240)

Micro-Skills: Academic Listening (Listening to Lectures)
1. Ability to identify purpose and scope of lecture.
2. Ability to identify topic of lecture and follow topic development.
3. Ability to identify relationships among units within discourse (e.g., major ideas, generalizations, hypotheses, supporting ideas, examples).
4. Ability to identify role of discourse markers in signaling structure of a lecture (e.g., conjunctions, adverbs, gambits, routines).
5. Ability to infer relationships (e.g., cause, effect, conclusion).
6. Ability to recognize key lexical items related to subject/topic.
7. Ability to deduce meanings of words from context.
8. Ability to recognize markers of cohesion.
9. Ability to recognize function of intonation to signal information structure (e.g., pitch, volume, pace, key).
10. Ability to detect attitude of speaker toward subject matter.
11. Ability to follow different modes of lecturing: spoken, audio, audio-visual.

12. Ability to follow lecture despite differences in accent and speed.
13. Familiarity with different styles of lecturing: formal, conversational, read, unplanned.
14. Familiarity with different registers: written versus colloquial.
15. Ability to recognize irrelevant matter: jokes, digressions, meanderings.
16. Ability to recognize function of non-verbal cues as markers of emphasis and attitude.
17. Knowledge of classroom conventions (e.g., turn taking, clarification requests).
18. Ability to recognize instructional/learner tasks (e.g., warnings, suggestions, recommendations, advice, instructions).

The checklist of micro-skills provided by Richards (1993) provided is useful for lesson planning. Teachers can get a good idea of the techniques needed to cover the listening lesson plan objectives as the aim behind teaching listening comprehension is to facilitate the acquisition of these micro-skills by foreign language learners.

In the same vein, Brown (2007) suggests a simplified version of Richards' listening skills taxonomy. It consists of micro and macro conversational listening skills. Micro skills are those skills related to the meaning at the sentence level, while macro skills relate to the discourse level of organization. The following tables represent Brown's (2007, p308) checklist.

Table 5

Listening Micro skills for Conversational Discourse (Brown, 2007, p.308)

Listening Comprehension Micro Skills (for conversational discourse)
1. Retain chunks of language of different lengths in short-term memory
2. Discriminate among the distinctive sounds of English
3. Recognize English stress patterns, words in stressed and unstressed positions, rhythmic structure, intonational contours, and their role in signaling information.
4. Recognize reduced forms of words.
5. Distinguish word boundaries, recognize a core of words, and interpret word order patterns and their significance.
6. Process speech containing pauses, errors, corrections, and other performance variables.
7. Process speech at different rates of delivery.
8. Recognize grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.), systems (e.g., tense, agreement, pluralization), patterns, rules, and elliptical forms.
9. Detect sentence constituents and distinguish between major and minor constituents.
10. Recognize that a particular meaning may be expressed in different grammatical forms.

Table 6

Listening Macro skills for Conversational Discourse (Brown, 2007, p.308)

Listening- Macro Skills (for Conversational Discourse)
1. Recognize cohesive devices in spoken discourse.
2. Recognize the communicative functions of utterances, according to situations, participants, goals.
3. Infer situations, participants, goals using real-world knowledge. (pragmatic competence)
4. From events, ideas, etc., described, predict outcomes, infer links and connections between events, deduce causes and effects, and detect such relations such as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.
5. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings.
6. Use facial, kinesic, body language, and other nonverbal cues to decipher meanings.
7. Develop and use a battery of listening strategies, such as detecting key words, guessing the meaning of words from context, appealing for help, and signaling comprehension or lack thereof.

By knowing the micro-and macro skills, both teachers and students will understand the direction of the learning in the classroom. Therefore, EFL teachers should set lesson plan goals that go hand in hand with the skills checklist listed. Learners want to be able to have the necessary proficiency in listening so that they can carry on conversations (conversational listening), enjoy watching movies (listening for pleasure), and take notes and understand lectures (academic listening).

3.10 Major Problems that Learners Face with Listening Comprehension

Listening has been challenging for teachers as well as learners. The difficulties learners face when listening are several. According to Azmi Bingol, Celik, Yidliz, and Tugrul Mart (2014), In the listening comprehension processes, the following problems are detected:

3.10.1 The Quality of Recorded Materials

In foreign language classrooms, the use of some recorded materials is inevitable. Yet, the quality of these recorded materials is not always good, which can affect learners' comprehension of the listening material. Azmi Bingol, Celik, Yidliz, & Tugrul Mart (2014) affirm that learners may find it difficult to understand the listening material due to the quality of the sound system.

3.10.2 Cultural Differences

Cultural knowledge is an essential element in the listening process. Being familiar with the cultural knowledge of the target language has a significant impact on learners' listening comprehension. The majority of listening tasks involve different cultural content which learners find it difficult to understand if they lack the necessary cultural background knowledge. So, teachers should help their students gain cultural knowledge of the target language in advance to improve their listening skills (Azmi, Celik, Yidliz, & Tugrul, 2014).

3.10.3 Accent

Another problem that FL learners may encounter is the accent. Munro and Derwing (1999) behold that too many accents in speech hamper the full comprehension of the speech. Goh (1999) maintains that the majority of learners (66%) consider a speaker's accent as the most significant factor that has an impact on their listening comprehension. When listeners are exposed to unfamiliar accents, be it native or non-native, this can hamper comprehending the listening material and interrupt the whole listening process (Buck, 2001).

3.10.4 Unfamiliar Vocabulary

Unfamiliar vocabulary is one the common problems detected when learning a foreign language. Taken that one word can have different meanings contextually, not knowing the meaning of words heard can also affect listening comprehension. According to Azmi Bingol,

Celik, Yidliz, and Tugrul Mart (2014), if the listening text involves easy and known language, learners, as a result, can comprehend the text heard. In return, when learners find it easy to understand the speech heard due to familiar vocabulary, this will raise their motivation and interest toward the whole learning process.

3.10.5 Length and Speed of Listening

While it is quite easy for high-level learners to listen for more than three minutes long and complete their listening task, long parts of the listening task can cause serious problems for students of low level (Azmi Bingol, Celik, Yidliz, and Tugrul Mart, 2014). Short listening passages are easier to understand for foreign language learners. Also, the speed of speech is another problem. According to Underwood (1989), because the speed of the speakers in the listening passage is too fast, listeners find it difficult to understand the message heard. Learners cannot control how quickly the speakers speak .

All in all, mastering the listening skill is a challenge. One of the reasons is the lack of sufficient cultural background knowledge of the target language. Culture plays a significant role in language learning, “culture and language are inseparable” Brown (1994). Among all the problems students may face in their listening comprehension, cultural background knowledge is considered critical. Students' awareness of the target language culture is important in comprehending the text heard and enhancing their listening comprehension skills. Having background knowledge of the country's culture and history may facilitate the whole listening process. Vandergrift (2007) and Walker (2014) maintain that pragmatic knowledge of the target language help listeners make inferences and recognize the speaker's intended meaning. In this regard, many studies were conducted on the relationship between listening comprehension and cultural background knowledge, which are to be reviewed in the following section.

3.11 Related Studies

Various studies on second language learning skills with regard to cultural background knowledge have been conducted. However, few empirical studies examined the relationship between listening comprehension and cultural background knowledge. Long (1990) investigated the relationship between background knowledge and L2 listening comprehension. Her sample was third-quarter Spanish students. She provided them with familiar and unfamiliar passages. The assessment of students' listening comprehension was based on a recognition measure, a recall protocol in English, and a true-false checklist referring to the content of the passages was given. The results indicated that English summaries revealed a higher proportion of correct idea units for the familiar topic however, according to the recognition measure, there were no significant differences between the familiar and unfamiliar passages.

Similarly, Ervin (1992) investigated the listening comprehension of Scottish and Texan American students with reference to familiar and non-familiar texts. The study of the “Effect of Culturally Related Schemata and Instruction Using Thematic Units on Comprehension” aimed at exploring the effect of familiar content on students' understanding and the role of thematic units in building cultural background knowledge. The subjects, consisting of 25 Scottish pupils and 21 Texan students aging between 8 to 10 years, were pre- and post-tested. The pupils/students listened to two passages about their own culture and another culture and answered a 10-item multiple-choice test for both passages. Then, the group was given a one-week other-culture thematic unit and took the other-culture test again. The results indicated no significance between the same-culture and another culture pre-test for the Texan group, yet, the Scottish group scores were significantly higher on their own-culture test than on the other-culture test.

In the same vein, Schmidt-Rinehart (1994) investigated the effects of topic familiarity on second language listening comprehension of Spanish university students. Students at three different course levels listened to two passages, one contains familiar information and another contains unfamiliar and novel information. The passages represent a spontaneous Spanish native speaker speech. Students' listening comprehension was assessed through a native language recall procedure. As a result, the subjects scored higher on the familiar topic than on the new one.

Moreover, Tsou (2005) examined the effects of cultural instruction on foreign language learning. The study used a combination of anthropology processes and a task-oriented approach to conduct cultural lessons. The researcher implemented cultural instructions for teachers within two elementary EFL classrooms in Taiwan for one semester. The results of this study suggest that the effect of cultural instruction on language learning was positive. Students with the culture instruction increased more than the students in the control groups. In addition, the results of the interviews indicated that including cultural instruction in the language classroom could help increase students' motivation toward language learning.

In addition, Hayati (2009) conducted a study on the impact of cultural knowledge on the listening comprehension of EFL Iranian learners. The subjects of the study were pre-intermediate language learners who were selected based on their scores on the listening comprehension test and were randomly assigned to four groups. The three groups were exposed to different kinds of cultures, target language culture, international culture, and local culture, but the fourth group was not exposed to any sort of culture. After the exposure, a post-test was conducted to see the changes. As a result, students exposed to culture performed differently on the post-test indicating that familiarity with cultural content improves learners' listening proficiency.

Furthermore, Mahmoudi (2017) attempted to find the possible relationship between listeners' cultural schemata and their activation and their performance in EFL listening comprehension. The participants of this study were two groups of 37 Muslim Iranian students who were divided according to their proficiency (low and high) into two groups. The students listened to two audio files about mosques and the other about cathedrals. The purpose was to see the effects of listening to a culturally unfamiliar topic (cathedrals) on activating low-level learners' schema of the culturally familiar topic (mosques). The results showed that an unfamiliar text, even if it is conceptually similar, cannot activate a culturally familiar schema in low-level students.

Another relevant study on the impact of cultural background on listening comprehension is that of Al-khresheh (2020). The study aims to determine the difficulties Saudi EFL students face in their listening comprehension and to highlight the main reasons for the difficulties. In addition, the purpose of this study is to determine whether cultural background knowledge has an impact on Saudi EFL learners' listening comprehension or not. To fulfill these objectives, Al-khresheh (2020) uses a questionnaire and a diagnostic test with a sample of 31 Saudi English students. Also, eight EFL teachers were given a reflective essay to identify their perceptions of the issue. The results revealed that Saudi EFL learners consider listening as difficult. To specify, they have a remarkable challenge in the parsing, perception, and utilization phases of their listening comprehension. Furthermore, the results show that cultural background knowledge significantly affects Saudi EFL learners' listening comprehension process.

As indicated in the literature, various studies argued the importance of the integral of culture in language learning. Some of the aforementioned studies revealed the significance of culturally based content in improving learners' listening comprehension. Such studies were conducted on EFL learners from different parts of the world; however, few, if none, that has

been made on the case of Algerian EFL learners. The cultural context of ELT in Algeria and its impact on learners' listening comprehension has never been thoroughly examined.

Accordingly, this study will examine the impact of culturally based content on undergraduate Algerian EFL learners' listening comprehension.

Conclusion

This chapter is the backbone of the related literature. It deals with the concepts related to the variable listening comprehension. That is, it reviews the definitions of listening, listening comprehension, and the listening comprehension process and strategies. In addition, the chapter provides a clear overview of how listening is taught and the major problems students face in listening. Most importantly, this chapter reviews the studies related to the relationship between listening comprehension and students' cultural awareness, which stand at the core of this research.

CHAPTER FOUR

Research Methodology

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

Introduction

Research methodology refers to “the general approach the researcher takes in carrying out the research project” (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001, p. 14). Thereof, an attempt of doing any research must always be accompanied by an adequate research methodology. The researcher's main aim is to appropriately choose the research design that meets his objectives. He/she tries to systematically select his research methodology that best suits the research problem and aims to eventually ensure valid and reliable results. Accordingly, this research abides by scientific conventions. In this chapter, the research process is as follows: First, the research questions and hypotheses are set along with the research design selected for this study. After the deep explanation for the research design selection, a thorough discussion of the sampling techniques and strategies is stated. Then, the administration and piloting of the research instruments are mentioned. Finally, the last points discussed are the treatment, data analysis procedures, ethical considerations and limitations of the study.

4.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

Stating clear-cut research questions and developing logical hypotheses constitute the focal point for most types of research. Thereof, the research questions and hypotheses for the current study are to be re-mentioned next.

4.1.1 Research Questions

- 1.** To what extent can cultural background knowledge affect second-year English students' listening comprehension?

2. What are the students' perceptions of the use of impact of the culturally oriented syllabus on the listening comprehension skill?

4.1.2 Research Hypotheses

In compliance with the aforementioned research questions, the following hypotheses are stated.

1. **Null Hypothesis (H0)** “If second-year English students have cultural background knowledge, there will be no statistically significant impact in the mean ranks on their listening comprehension post-test if EG group is compared to CG”
2. **Alternative Hypothesis (H1)** “If second-year English students have cultural background knowledge, there will a statistically significant impact in the mean ranks on their listening comprehension post-test if EG group is compared to CG”

4.2 Research Design

To conceptualize the term “research design”, a definition of research, in general, is needed first. According to the Oxford Advanced Learners’ Dictionary of Current English (1986:720), research is defined as “systematic investigation was undertaken to discover new facts, get additional information” that is, research is an attempt to find new facts and information about a phenomenon in a systematic manner. Any research must be planned and follow a process which is called a research design. Leedy (1997) defines research design as “a plan for a study, providing the overall framework for collecting data” (p.195). It refers to the overall plan the researcher chooses to put together all his research components coherently and logically. Also, this strategic plan has to address the research problem and questions effectively For Durrheim (2004), “a research design is a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution, or implementation of the research strategy”(p.29). To put it differently, it is the research problem that governs the

choice of the research design. Thus, in conducting the study in hand, a research design is established to ensure the effectiveness of the results obtained.

There are many types of research designs. Choosing the right one is heavily dependent on the research problem, aims, and timeline set. Therefore, to fulfill the desired objectives, the current study makes use of three research designs namely, case study, mixed-method (triangulation), and a quasi-experimental design. As the aim is to examine the impact of cultural background knowledge on the students' listening comprehension, it entails a quasi-experimental type. Furthermore, the case study choice is justified by the researcher's choice of a specific case that is second-year English students at Sétif-2 university. Finally, qualitative and quantitative methods are used for data collection, which makes it a mixed-method approach.

4.2.1 Case Study Design

The study in hand embraces the case study design. As far as Yin (1994), a case study is “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not evident...[and] relies on multiple sources of evidence” (p. 13). It aims to/provide an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon in real contexts and settings. Yet, it is more considered as a strategy rather than a method (Stoecker, 1991, Yin, 1994). Similarly, Stake (2000) maintains that a case study is not so much a methodological choice but a choice of what is to be studied. However, in social sciences, the meaning of a case is controversial. Ragin (1997) argues that it is clear that in “variable oriented” work, the focus is on the variables. To illustrate, the investigation starts by defining a problem in which many cases can be examined. It is a comparative work where the emphasis is put on explaining the relations among the variables we have collected data on. Yet, in case-oriented, the emphasis is put on the case “ individuals” themselves not on the variables. However, the conventional one is that a case is “a single

instance, a sample of one” Easton (2010). A case is a phenomenon that is spatially delimited and studied synchronically or diachronically (Gerring, 2004; Sandelowski, 2011). It is also distinguished by its size, be it a country, a city, a social group, a business, a family, or a single individual (Gerring, 2007).

The selection of the case study design as the most appropriate research strategy stems from the rationale behind the research. The nature of the research problem and the questions being asked are what determine the research design choice. So, the current study embodies the case study design as the best plan because of its numerous merits that serve the research rationale. In brief, the case study design has the following strengths:

- It investigates complex social units including multiple variables of potential importance in understanding the phenomena.
- It offers a rich and holistic account of a real-life phenomenon in real contexts.
- It gives insights for future research and advances the field's knowledge base.
- What is learned in a particular case can be transferred to similar situations?
- A case study has proven particularly useful for studying educational innovations, evaluating programs, and informing policy.

In addition, case studies have several types depending on the reasons. It can be either single or multiple. A single-site case method is conducted with a single/ unique phenomenon within a single setting. Yet, a multiple case study examines all the instances of one phenomenon in different times and settings. Due to time and money limitations, this research adopts the single-site case study to examine the impact of cultural background knowledge on students listening comprehension with the case of second-year English students at Setif-2 university.

4.2.2 Quasi-Experimental

A quasi-experimental design is an empirical investigation of the cause-effect relationship between a dependent and an independent variable. the prefix quasi- means “resembling” therefore, a quasi-experimental is not true experimental research. Quasi-experimental shares some similarities with a true experimental design, but it lacks the random assignment to treatment or control (Cook & Campbell, 1979). In this regard, this study is quasi-experimental as it seeks to establish the relation between the dependent variable cultural background knowledge and the independent variable listening comprehension. Also, this study used non-random assignment of the control and experimental groups due to the already assigned groups from the administration, thus, a quasi-experimental type of design is an inevitable choice.

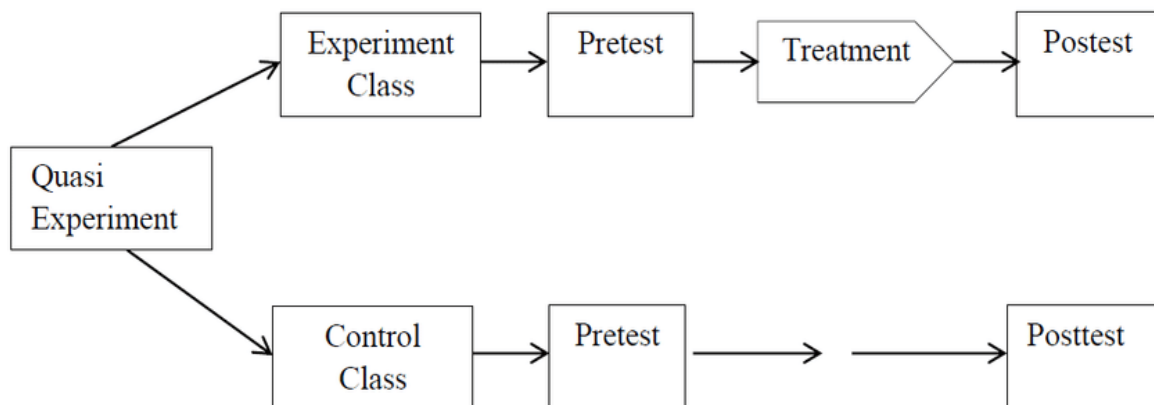
A major benefit of quasi-experiments is that it has more external validity. It refers to the extent to which the conclusions can be applied in a different situation, people, stimuli, and setting (Aronson et al., 2007). However, Quasi-experiments are most likely to be conducted in field settings in which random assignment is difficult or impossible. This lack in return put internal validity under question. According to Borg, Gall & Gall (1993), internal validity refers to “the degree to which the design of an experiment controls extraneous variables” (p.1024). An extraneous variable is a variable that is not investigated and can influence the dependent and independent variable (Pearl, 2009) for example, motivation the sample’s major ...etc. Extraneous variables are hard to manage and can cause inaccurate conclusions about the relationship between the main variables if left uncontrolled. Quasi-experiments have more of an external than internal validity.

In addition, the most common type of quasi-experimental design is the pre-test/post-test known as non-randomized control design or the non-equivalent groups design. It is similar to a true experiment when participants (EG and CG) sit for a pre-test and then a post-test after

the EG receives the treatment to finally compare results. However, in a true experimental design, the groups (EG and CG) are considered equivalent because they are randomly selected. But, the randomized assignment featuring a quasi-experimental type makes them non-equivalent. Thereby, this study adopts the pre-test/post-test non-equivalent groups design to examine the impact of cultural background knowledge on students' listening comprehension. The participants for this study were purposively selected due to administrative constraints. The researcher does not have the freedom to randomly select the students in the groups along with their timetables. A schematic diagram for the NECD is as follows:

Figure 6

Quasi-experiment with Non-Equivalent Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design



4.2.3 Mixed-Method (Triangulation) Design

A mixed-method research design represents more than one method to approach the research problem. There are four main types of mixed-method design, namely the Triangulation Design, the Embedded Design, the Explanatory Design, and the Exploratory Design. The current study opts for the triangulation type because of its advantages that serve this study best. Triangulation design is taken as one of the most common and well-known

types (Creswell, Plano Clark, et al., 2003). It refers to the use of multiple and different approaches to generate a better understanding of a given theory or phenomenon (Burton and Obel, 2011; Singleton & Straits, 1999). Morse (1991) declares that the main objective of a triangulation design is “to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic” (p. 122).

The researcher in this methodological procedure collects and analyzes qualitative and quantitative on the same phenomena (Creswell, 1999). On the one hand, the quantitative method has originated from the scientific method which is based on statistical procedures (tests and questionnaires) for numerical data analysis. On the other hand, the quantitative method relies mainly on descriptive and narrative procedures (interviews and observations) for analyzing non-numerical data ((Berrios & Lucca, 2006). Consequently, this study employs the mixed method approach particularly the triangulation for it provides an in-depth understanding and improves the validity of the research (Hurmerinta-Peltomaki & Nummeia, 2006).

In this research, the qualitative procedures constitute a culture scale to measure the students’ cultural knowledge along with a placement test to examine and ensure their level in English. Moreover, a pre-test is administered to both groups (EG and CG), and then right after the treatment students sit for a post-test to obtain and compare their prior and final statistical results. As for the qualitative non-numerical data, they are obtained through FGD during the exploratory phase and a post-experiment survey and perceptions questionnaires are given to the participants as a post-experimental procedure.

4.3 Research Setting /Locale

This research is conducted at Setif 2 Mohamed Lamine Debaghine university during the academic year 2019-2020. The oral expression class is of two sessions weekly for one hour and a half for each. One session is in the regular classroom, and the second is in the university

laboratory with a computer for each student. The experiment is made during the second class in the lab to test the impact of cultural background knowledge on students' listening comprehension.

4.4 Target Population

Before any research is made, the target population must be identified and agreed upon. According to the APA dictionary (2015), the target population is “the population that a study is intended to research and to which generalizations from samples are to be made, also called reference population”. The current research target population comprises second-year English major students at Setif-2 Mohamed Lamine Debaghine university during the academic year 2019-2020. This population is accessible to the researcher because it is made at the researcher's workplace. During the aforementioned academic year, the target population constitutes 466 students divided into two (02) sections A and B. In each section, there are six groups of 38 to 39 students per one, which is selected automatically according to the family name by the administration.

The aim behind the selection of this specific target population is by no means accidental. English major students are not well communicators because they are not greatly exposed to listening materials. Their listening comprehension has little attention during the university level, not to mention the high and middle school level. Also, their cultural knowledge, considered as a potential factor that may affect their listening comprehension is not well developed in English modules, especially in oral expression. Again, the study chooses second-year students because of two reasons. Although first-year students are assigned two classes in oral expression (speaking and listening), not all teachers abide by this. The second reason is that third-year students have only one session of oral expression in a regular classroom rather than the lab. Thus, second-year students stand as the best legitimate choice.

4.5 Research Sample and Sampling Techniques

4.5.1 Research Sample

In an attempt to answer the research questions, collecting data from all cases is a challenging, if not impossible, mission. Thereby, the researcher has to specify a group of individuals from the entire population. In research, the term sample refers to a specific group of people, objects, or items chosen from a larger population for measurements. When a sample is a group of people, they are called subjects or participants. Thus, the subjects for the study in hand are made of 41 second-year English students divided into two groups: EG:21(19 females and 2 males) and CG: 20 (17 females and 3 males). Their ages range from 19 to 22 males females. The selection of this sample undergoes specific techniques explained as follows.

4.5.2 Sampling Techniques

Sampling refers to “the process of selecting a smaller group of participants to tell us essentially what a larger population might tell us if we asked every member of the larger population the same questions” Glicken (2003). To put it differently, it refers to the method employed to select a specific group of people or things to conduct a study (Mertens, 2005). In general, sampling techniques can be divided into two:

1. Probability or Random Sampling

Probability sampling entails the randomized selection of the sample. To illustrate, every item in the population has an equal opportunity to be selected as a sample. Although it is costly in terms of money and time, randomized sampling increases the sample’s representativeness of the whole population and decreases the sample’s bias and error.

2. Non- Probability Sampling (non-random)

As far as Yin (2003), probability sampling calls for the non-randomization selection of the sample. That is, not every item in the population has an equal chance in the selection for

the sample. It is true that this technique is accessible and affordable, but it lays higher risks of bias

The current investigation uses the non-probability sampling technique since random selection is impossible. The second-year class of 2019-2020 is comprised of 466 students divided into two sections A and B each section contains six (06) groups with a range of 38 students per group. The selection of the groups along with their timetables is assigned by the administration. Therefore, the researcher purposively selects two groups (A1+A6) based on their accessibility and the suitable timing of both, the researcher and the subjects. Group A1 and A6 with a total of 41 students constitute five males and 36 females (A1= 2 male and 19 females, A6 = 17 female and three 03 male), and their ages range from 19 to 22. Even though the sample was randomly chosen, the selection which is to be the experimental group and the control group is not. The teacher folded two pieces of paper under the name of group A and group B and shuffles them. The first one picked is meant to be the experimental group and consequently the second is to be the control group.

4.6 Data Collection Instruments

The main purpose of the actual research is to test the research hypothesis in relation to the treatment assigned, which means testing how a culturally-based syllabus can affect students listening comprehension. Therefore, abiding by the research objectives and testing the hypothesis set for it, the study under investigation follows methodological procedures for data collection. As it adopts a mixed-method design, this study uses several qualitative and quantitative instruments to collect data. The researcher uses such instruments in the different phases of the whole work, which are to be discussed in detail next.

4.6.1 The Exploratory Phase

In the exploratory phase, the researcher diagnoses the research problem using different methods. First, a thorough understudying of the topic and its variables is mandatory. Then as

an early-stage research procedure, two methods were used to diagnose the research problem namely, an informal conversation and a focus group discussion.

4.6.1.1 Informal Discussion. Talking to people is a key element in any quantitative research. Informal discussions or “informal conversations” constitute a known example of a tool used in the early stages of an investigation. Bernard (2011) refers to the term as “informal interviewing” (p.156) or “unstructured interviewing” (p.157). Also, it is one of the easiest data collection tools where participants are less anxious and speak spontaneously. In this study, the researcher opts for informal conversations with six second-year oral expression teachers to explore the teachers’ perceptions of the topic and highlight the research problem.

This informal discussion took place in the teachers’ staff room when a regular meeting is held for oral expression teachers to agree on the courses to be taught for the new academic year (2018-2019). After the meeting, the researcher took the chance of about 15 to 20 minutes and asked the teachers whether their students have the right cultural knowledge of the English language and how can this affect their listening comprehension. Most of the teachers said that their students have little cultural background knowledge. They also think that students find it difficult to understand listening materials assigned to them because simply listening is culturally loaded. Finally, they suggest that more cultural content should be included in oral expression classrooms thinking that it may affect their students’ listening comprehension achievement (see appendix C).

4.6.1.2 Focus Group Discussion. Driven by the aim of identifying the research problem, a focus group discussion with students is needed. Focus group discussion is a commonly used method in quantitative research. It is a technique where the researcher gathers a group of people to discuss a topic to explore the group’s beliefs, experiences, attitudes, and perceptions. This technique is closely similar to interviews, specifically semi-structured “one-to-one” and “group interviews” (Parker & Tritter, 2006). Accordingly, an FGD is held with a

group of 10 second-year students who were randomly selected during the end of the second semester. It takes place in the department of English with the researcher's students as she is their oral expression teacher. The researcher asked six (06) main questions to ensure the existence of the research problem, to explore their perceptions, and to gain insights about the topic. The questions for the FGD are found in appendix D.

4.6.2 The Pre-Experimental and Experimental Phase

Before experimenting and before students receive any intervention, two main research instruments are administered. Students had to answer to a placement test to ascertain their level in English and a cultural intelligence scale to examine their cultural background knowledge.

4.6.2.1 Placement Test. The aim of using a placement test in advance is to investigate the participants' level of the language and to ensure homogeneity among the participants. If the participants are homogenous in terms of general knowledge of the English language, this will minimize the interference of extraneous variables. Furthermore, knowing the overall English level of the participants helps the researchers in choosing the right level of the courses to be designed as an intervention. The placement test selected for this study is the New Opportunities test A3, 2005 (appendix E), which consists of 80 questions mainly about grammatical and linguistic knowledge. Both groups (EG and CG) sit for the test which took about 30minutes to answer the 80 MCQs assigned.

4.6.2.2 Cultural Intelligence Scale. The Cultural Intelligence Scale (adopted from the Cultural Intelligence Center, 2005) is the second tool used ahead of the experiment. Cultural intelligence (CQ) is defined as an individual's capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings, which are consistent with Schmidt and Hunter's, 2000, p. 3 or Earley and Ang (2003). The test constitutes four CQ dimensions viz., meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral each dimension contains (four, six, five,

five statements). Participants take the test and choose one of the Likert scale agreement seven (07) point options for each statement. They choose what is best to their knowledge. (see appendix F). It is taken as pre and post-test.

4.6.2.3 Pre-Test/Post-Test. In compliance with the quasi-experimental design adopted for this study, particularly the NEGD type, a pre-test, and a post-test is mandatory. A pre-test/post-test design is an experiment where measurements and comparisons are taken before and after an intervention. “A pre-test is a check of whether there are pre-existing differences between the groups in abilities or other characteristics” (Lodico et al. 2006 p.23) That is, there is attesting of a dependent variable with an independent variable before and after a selected treatment. In this study, the researcher adopts the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) academic (Cambridge IELTS 8, test 1 and 2) listening test as a pre-/post-test. Before the treatment phase, the experimental and the control groups took the pre-test (A1) within a period of 00 where they listened only once. After one academic year of treatment (two semesters), participants (EG and CG) sit again for an (A 2) test to finally compare results obtained and see the effectiveness of the inclusion of the independent variable before and after the experiment. To avoid any internal validity of instruments, the researcher administrated the same test design (IELTS 8) but with different test numbers.

The selected test (Cambridge IELTS 8, 2011) is of four sections each section has 10 questions, so participants will need to answer 40 questions in response to four recordings. Each response is scored as one. The content of the recordings constitutes different settings of mixed monologues and a range of native speakers’ conversations in real-life contexts. Authentic materials entail that the materials are similar to real-life (Wilkins, 1976). Materials used in IELTS listening tests cover a variety of topics from real and academic life. Listening materials of real-life language use are loaded with cultural content as language is used to

express its culture (Anderson and Lynch 1988). Thus, the IELTS test is seen as a suitable choice. A summary of the four sections of the test is shown in the table below.

Table 7

Summary of the Four Sections of the IELTS Listening Test

Section	Focus	Skills and purpose	Topic	Type of task
1	Conversational/ Transactional (2 speakers)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Basic social/survival skills • Study-related language use 	General topic (e.g., transportation, a product, restaurant, accommodation)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information transfer: Within the word limit, complete/label notes, a summary, a table, a diagram or chart, a map or a plan.
2	Monologue/ Transactional (1 speaker)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to follow and respond to instructions 	General topic (e.g., touring, holiday plan, camping, transportation)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multiple-choice questions: Choose an alternative from a multiple-choice question. • Short-answer questions: Provide a short answer (within the word limit) to a question.
3	Conversation/ Academic (2+ speakers)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ability to retrieve and extract explicitly stated information 	Academic/ topic (e.g., workplace, place, ecology)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Matching tasks: Match listed statements to possible answers.
4	Monologue/ Academic (1 speaker)		Academic topic (e.g., history, theory, philosophy)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classification tasks: Classify the information provided in the question.

4.6.3 Post-Experimental Phase

As a post-experimental procedure, the researcher attempts to explore the participants' perceptions about the impact of cultural knowledge on their listening comprehension and the effectiveness of the whole experiment in general.

4.6.3.1 Perceptions Questionnaire. By the end of the experiment, the researcher tries to explore the participants from the experimental group about their perceptions/ attitudes of cultural background knowledge and how can affect their listening comprehension. The questionnaire is a Likert scale agreement option type. It consists of five (05) statements where participants get to choose a point from the five points agreement options provided (strongly disagree -1 to strongly disagree -2). (See appendix J)

4.7 Pilot Testing of Research Instruments

To determine the feasibility of the research tool before experimenting, pilot testing is needed. Piloting is a preliminary rehearsal used to test the research tools with a small number of participants to ensure the workability of the tools. In this study, piloting is used with both the quantitative and qualitative instruments employed.

4.7.1 Pilot Testing of the Pre-Experiment Instruments

Before the administering of the placement test and cultural intelligence scale to the whole sample, a pilot testing is conducted with eight second-year English students randomly selected. The sample selected is meant to check the clarity and the timing allocated for both tests. Consequently, the placement test is adopted without any modifications in terms of wording and time, which is 60 minutes. However, as for the cultural intelligence scale, students believed that the statements are clear, but it needs more than the 15 minutes assigned for it. So, the cultural intelligence scale is adopted with an alternative timing of 30 minutes.

4.7.2 Pilot Testing of the Experimental Instruments (T-Test)

The validity and reliability criteria are what make the whole research credible. the reliability of the content of the IELTS test as a whole is tested, In the reliability estimates report used in 2019 , Cronbach's alpha is used to measure the internal consistency of the 40 item test. Based on the responses of test takers in the listening material released in 2019, the Average alpha across versions of all the listening test sections (academic and general) was 0.91. Thus, piloting is made in terms of the test conditions and timing. Initially, the researcher asked two oral expression teachers about the time required for this test and their answers ranged from one hour to one hour and a half taking into consideration their experiences and their students' level. Then, ten second-year students were selected five second-year students to sit for the test. The selected sample is divided into two groups of five.

One group will do the test in the lab using computers and headphones for each and the other will take it in an actual classroom with speakers for a time of 40 minutes. Afterward, a discussion with the students is helpful to see their suggestions. Students who took the test in the lab finished almost all the sections while those who listened using the speakers didn't catch up. Both groups agreed that it's better to take the test in the lab. Also, they suggest that the timing be more than 40 minutes. Based on the teachers' and the students' suggestions, the test is taken in the lab with a time allocated of 60 minutes (one hour).

- **Validity of Pre-/Post-Test**

Validity and reliability are fundamental in any test adopted for the research. According to Hughes (2003), a test is valid when it accurately measures what it is supposed to measure. The validity of a test comprises face validity, content validity, criterion-related validity, and validity in scoring. The focus of this study is on validity in scoring. The invalidity in scoring can jeopardize the whole test validity. As for the IELTS listening test scoring, it is valid because it gives clear results about the participants' level. Their scores are put on a scale from zero to nine.

- **Reliability of Pre-/Post-Test**

Another factor that counts for the quality of the test is reliability. It refers to the extent to which test scores reflect the test taker's actual score. Bachman and Palmer (1996) point out that reliability is an approach to the coherence of marks obtained from various performance measurements. When the same test is administered to the same group of individuals on two different occasions in two different settings, it should not make any difference to a particular test taker (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). According to Lodico et al. (2006), an instrument is reliable when it can produce approximately the same score for an individual over repeated testing or across different rates (p.87). The content of IELTS listening materials is very practical and reflects real-life situations. The test is taken in a quiet classroom, so the physical

environment will have no impact on the results. Apart from the participants' mood on the day of the test, the test is taken to be relatively valid and reliable.

4.7.3 Pilot Testing of Post-Experimental Perceptions Questionnaire

The instrument used in the post-experiment is a perceptions questionnaire. It is meant to explore the participants' (from the EG) attitudes of the cultural content integration and how it can affect their listening comprehension as well as their perceptions of the experiment in general. The perceptions questionnaire constitutes a five-point agreement Likert scale. It was piloted using SPSS to ensure its validity and reliability.

- **Validity: Internal validity**

Validity has to do with the extent to which a given instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Lodico, Spaulding, and Voegtle, 2006). The results of the questionnaire were used to check the internal validity and calculate the correlation coefficient (Spearman) between the items of the tool as the table below shows:

Table 8

The Internal Validity Results of Perceptions Questionnaire

internal validity	correlation	significance
Item 1	0.941	0.01**
Item 2	0.927	0.01**
Item 3	0.941	0.01**
Item 4	0.915	0.01**
Item 5	0.637	0.002
internal validity of tool	0.926	0.01**

Table 8 reveals that most of the correlation of the tool items are statistically significant (sig.= 0.01) and the correlation coefficient of the whole tool is (0.92). This means that the questionnaire has internal validity and can be used as a research instrument.

- **Reliability (Split-Half)**

According to Wallace (1998), the term reliability refers to the degree to which a test is stable and consistent in measuring what is intended to measure, that is, it deals with the consistency, stability, and accuracy within the test itself and across time. Therefore, to measure the reliability of this tool, the Split-Half method is used. As shown in Table 9 below, the coefficient of the Guttman Split –Half was found (**0.77**), which is very high. So, the tool used is reliable to be used as a research instrument.

Table 9

The Reliability Results of Perceptions Questionnaire

Reliability Statistics		
Spearman-Brown Coefficient	Equal Length	0.962
	Unequal Length	0.964
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient		0.770

4.7.4 Pilot Testing of Lesson Plans

As for the lesson plans designed for the treatment, they are cultural-based. The lessons selected were designed for an oral expression class. That is, the content and activities are mainly listening and speaking. Four teachers specialized in TEFL and curriculum design from the department of English language at Setif-2 university are requested to confirm the cultural-base lesson plans and activities designed. the teachers have to validate the content in relation to culture and the general goal and conventions of designing lesson plans. The teachers' propositions are taken into consideration and lesson plans are modified accordingly.

4.8 Administration of the Research Instruments

This study employed quantitative and qualitative tools to collect data. The administration of these tools is determined by time and working conditions. So, this section provides chronological details of how and when the research instruments have been delivered.

4.8.1 Informal discussion

The informal discussion is part of the exploratory phase where the researcher attempts to diagnose the research problem with a small group of teachers. It took place at the beginning of the first semester on October 15th, 2018 in the teachers' staff room. The discussion lasts about 30 minutes where the researcher gives a brief explanation about the research topic and gives the floor to the teachers' perceptions and beliefs.

4.8.2 Focus Group Discussion

The researcher also tries to explore the students' perceptions of the topic to validate the research problem via using a Focus Group Discussion. It was held in room 15 on October 16th, 2018. The researcher herself was the oral expression teacher to the participants. So, right after the class, a group of 10 students is asked about their perceptions of the research topic spontaneously and informally. The discussion lasts about 40 minutes because the students were very responsive to the topic and the research problem.

4.8.3 Pre-Experimental Tests

The pre-experimental phase comprises of two main tests, namely Pearson placement test and the cultural intelligence scale. Both groups, the control and the experimental, took the tests in their oral expression and linguistics classes as the researcher herself was the teacher. The placement test was administered first on October 21st, 2019 during the last half an hour of the participants' classes (OE and Ling.). It was meant for 30 minutes. The next week, the

participants sat for the cultural intelligence, specifically on October 28th, 2019. Before answering the seven points Likert scale, the researcher explained the statements to the participants as well as the Likert scale briefly to better choose the option that fits their knowledge.

4.8.4 Pre-Test

The pre-test selected for this study is the IETLS listening test (Test 1), which is adopted from IELTS Cambridge 8. The test was delivered on October 30th, 2019 in the lab. Taking the test all on the same day, participants were each given a computer, headphones, and a blank piece of paper. The researcher tries his best to create a quiet environment for a test as possible. Also, the researcher took 10 minutes to briefly explain the test format and how answering will go so that test-takers perform well. The test as a whole took one hour.

4.8.5 Post -Test

Throughout two semesters, the subjects sat again for a similar test to examine the impact of the intervention on their listening comprehension performance. The post-test took place on May 4th, 2020. The number of the post-test chosen is ‘Test 2’ for the credibility of results. The test environment is similar to that of the pre-test with the difference of test number only. Also, the same cultural scale is provided simultaneously as a post-test to examine the participants’ cultural knowledge level after being exposed to the treatment.

4.8.6 Post-Experimental Tests

In the post-experimental phase, the researcher opted for a five-point agreement Likert scale perceptions questionnaire. By the end of the experiment, on May 5th, 2020 in room 15 the all participants of the experimental group were given five (05) statements based on the intervention provided during the experiment.

4.9 The Treatment Phase

The period of the treatment phase was for 10 weeks from November 2019 to May, 2020. The lessons are taken during the oral expression class for two sessions per week, each session is for one hour and a half (1h30min). So, participants are exposed to culturally loaded materials (listening and speaking activities). As for the lesson plans and the content, they are designed to meet the research objectives per se. The researcher developed a cultural base syllabus to enable participants to gain knowledge of the target language culture. Also, the cultural content designed for the students will enable them to critically compare and evaluate their own culture along with the target culture.

The researcher developed the cultural content of the lessons in compliance with the cultural strategies and techniques suggested for the teaching culture. The lessons consist of authentic materials and the use of audio-visual tools. Also, they made use of techniques that help boost intercultural competence like role-plays, cultural capsules, and culture assimilators. The researcher being herself the teacher ensures the coherence of the objectives of the lesson in terms of not only intercultural competence but linguistic too. Also, the lessons are designed in accordance with the conventions set for the second-year oral expression class by the ministry.

Following the ethical rules of a research experiment, the researcher had the participants sign a consent form to have their approval to be part of the experiment. Afterward and before even delivering the pre-test, the researcher explained to the participants what they are expecting to have as an intervention in the FGD held during the exploratory phase. The intervention designed is to be mentioned next.

4.9.1 First lesson: Introduction and Friendly Chat

The first class with the experimental group was a listening class. It was mainly an introductory class where participants are introduced to the concept of a culture where the

researcher was herself the teacher. Afterward, the teacher hold a small discussion about how people in the local culture introduce themselves, what are the different expressions used, and what are possible misunderstandings may happen. Participants then are asked the same questions about the target language culture. To support the teacher provides listening material as a real-life example of greetings self-introduction and in English-speaking countries (USA and UK) and activities about it. Students during the first class are exposed to cultural expressions and idioms as well as they start to compare the target culture with their own in terms of self-introduction and how to address people.

4.9.2 Second Lesson: Friendly Chat and Titles

The second lesson was about how to start a friendly chat and how to address people. The aim behind choosing this lesson is to enable students to compare and evaluate the differences in socializing in both cultures (the local and the target culture). In this lesson, with reference to both cultures, the teacher tackles the various expressions used to start to and to end a conversation and how to say goodbye. Then an example of friendly chat is introduced where the teacher and the students discuss the techniques and the speaking strategies used to maintain a conversation, especially with someone you don't know.

4.9.3 Third Lesson: Express and Defend Opinions

Following a cohesive syllabus, the next lesson was on how people express opinions. Initially, students were given different statements in which they give they agree or disagree in their native language. Then they listen to English native speakers giving their opinions on the same statements. The teacher explains the difference and what is appropriate and what is not when expressing opinions in the target language. The discussion developed when the students watched a video of how natives defend opinions and worksheets related to it. Finally, they are

assigned to do role plays and bring information about the target culture on the topic discussed during the one hour and a half of the speaking class.

4.9.4 Fourth Lesson: Invitations

The fourth cultural topic was about invitations. This topic, in particular, is chosen because it reflects greatly cultural values and differences. The American and British people are very different from the Algerians when making invitations. First, students are given handouts of different expressions used to accept or to refuse an invitation. After guessing the context of such expressions, students are asked to translate them into their dialect to mark the difference. The teacher had two groups of two to role-play an invitation context in Algerian Arabic and English. Ten different listening activities are used to learn the vocabulary needed how they make invitations and what to say when refusing or accepting following the English culture conventions.

4.9.5 Fifth Lesson: Requests

Another culturally loaded topic request. The teacher selects requests as the fifth lesson in the syllabus. The aim behind this choice is to teach students how to make requests respecting the setting, the person one is addressing, age, gender ...etc. Students are given different situations of asking favors in which they have to classify them from the most to the least that bother. Then, they give their answers what would they say if they were in similar situations with a close friend. Students' interactions were encouraging as they were well aware of the rules to respect when making requests of such in their own culture. Afterward, they listen to different conversations in English with people making requests. Activities related to the listening comprise analyzing the request setting, vocabulary, and the relationship between people talking. In this case, students will be able to make a socio-linguistic and intercultural analysis with reference to both cultures.

4.9.6 Sixth Lesson: Shopping

Aiming at familiarizing students with contextual cultural content, shopping is the sixth lesson. This lesson was very practical and encouraging. First, of all, the teacher wanted to test the students' background knowledge of shopping vocabulary, so a worksheet containing matching words/phrases and definitions is the first task. Then, a small discussion is held about shopping policies in the Algerian culture supported by real examples from the students' experiences. Then, students are exposed to audio-visual context, namely in a shop, returning items, how to make a complaint, and bargaining and negotiating the price in the target culture. Students by the end of the lesson will understand different shop policies in the target culture and mark the differences so to avoid possible misunderstandings in future encounters in English.

4.9.7 Seventh Lesson: In Restaurants

Another contextual class was about restaurants. The researcher opts for topics that reflect everyday life and restaurants and food are other suitable examples. The lesson was composed of listening activities related to restaurants etiquettes and how to order food. The class went further to discuss how to complain about the food and the service in the target culture. The main activities assigned to students after being handed worksheets and listening materials activities in the target culture are role-plays. Students in this class role played scenarios in their own culture and the target culture and used real tools and objects to make the role plays sound as real as possible.

4.9.8 Eighth Lesson: Cross Cultures

The last in-class session discusses cross-cultural variations in general and the concept of culture shock. Students are put in a context in which they imagine themselves moving to a foreign country (the UK or USA). Students, in group work, are asked to talk about and compare their feelings if moving to a foreign country and whether they see themselves able to

adjust easily or not. In a discussion, students had the chance to talk about the things they feel worried about and the things they are comfortable with when living in a different culture. Activities vary in this class, for instance, students are asked to give their opinions about customs and traditions from the British and American culture the teacher listed on the board. After listening and watching videos of people telling their experiences in the USA and the UK, students are assigned to search for the concept of culture shock and all its elements and present it in the next class as group work.

4.9.9 Ninth and Tenth Lessons: Holidays , Celebrations and Family System

In the lesson of the syllabus designed, the researcher opted for the topic of holidays and celebrations along with the family system to be taken during the last sessions. However, due to the covid-19 pandemic lockdown protocol, they are taken virtually. Using MOODLE platform, the researcher designed the lessons to fully match the previous face-to-face classes in terms of content and activities. Students had access to videos and worksheets of holidays, celebrations, and the family system found in the American and British cultures. For example, they are introduced with videos explaining Thanksgiving and Halloween festivals along with the relevant language. Similarly, family variations across cultures and family ties are presented as the second online lesson. Such online classes boost students' autonomous learning.

4.10 Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis is the most important part of any research. Marshall and Rossman (1999) describe data analysis as “the process of bringing order, structure, and meaning to the mass of collected data” (p.150). The procedures taken to analyze the data of this study are discussed next.

4.10.1 Analysis of Qualitative Data

The qualitative data for this study are obtained from FGD and the post-experiment survey. The data analysis starts by pointing out the main themes that come from the tool used. Then, the researcher examines and gives a thorough description of the thematic relationships and patterns related to the research aims.

4.10.2 Analysis of Quantitative Data

The quantitative tools employed in this study constitute the placement test, the cultural intelligence scale, the pre-test, the post-test, and the perceptions questionnaire. Data obtained from these tools are analyzed by using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) version 0.22. The analysis results in the frequencies, the percentages, and the mean ranks which are taken into consideration when making the differences between the scores of the pre-and post-tests to examine the effectiveness of the treatment assigned.

4.11 Ethical Considerations

While doing any human affairs, some principles and ethical values must be taken into consideration. In accordance with this, this research followed ethical principles in every step of the research. First of all, the researcher took the consent from the administration, specifically the head of the English department at Setif-2 University, to conduct this study. The experiment took place during oral expression classes at their regular timing assigned by the administration. In addition, the participants' consent to participate in this experiment is taken in advance to deliver any research instrument and be exposed to the treatment. Also, the confidentiality of the participants' information is respected in this study. The subjects are well informed ahead that all of their written or recorded answers are kept anonymous and used for research purposes only.

4.12 Limitations of the Study

Throughout the process of conducting this study, some limitations are signaled as follows:

- Randomization of the sample was not feasible due to the mandatory assignment of the students scheduled by the administration at Setif-2 University. So, not having a sample that truly represents the whole population is taken as a limitation that jeopardized the external validity of the research.
- Another limitation that put internal validity at risk is the random selection of the individuals of the experiment and the control group because the groups are already assigned by the administration
- Due to the covid-19 pandemic lockdown protocol, participants had to take their last two lessons designed for the experiment online. This may result in differences like the lack of face-to-face interaction that is seen as an extraneous variable and thus affect the internal validity of this study.

4.13 Delimitations of the Study

The parameters of this investigation are inclusively confined to the population of second-year English major students at Setif -2 university. The results are limited to the sample selected and the objectives and questions previously mentioned.

Conclusion

This chapter covers the framework adapted for the current investigation. It includes respectively the research design, methods, setting, participants, population and sampling technique, data collection instruments, materials used in the study, pilot testing of the instruments, administration of instruments, data analysis procedures, ethical considerations, limitations, and delimitations.

Chapter Five

Data Analysis Interpretation and Discussion

Chapter Five: Data Analysis, Interpretation and Discussion

Introduction

This chapter is meant for analyzing the data obtained from both quantitative and qualitative tools used throughout the different stages of the research. Given the findings attained, an interpretation and discussion are presented as an attempt to answer the aforementioned research questions and solve the research problem.

5.1 Data Analysis

In this section, a thorough analysis of data obtained from the exploratory, experimental, and post-experimental phases is provided. Analyzing data from the informal discussion and the FGD are meant to confirm the existence of the research problem, which constitutes the core element of the whole research. Furthermore, quantitative data are provided in the pre-and experimental phase specifically the placement test cultural intelligence scale, and pre/post tests. Data from these tools are analyzed to ascertain the subjects' level, their background knowledge and to validate the research hypothesis via their tests scores before and after the experiment. Afterward, the results of the post-experiment perceptions questionnaire is analyzed as an answer to the second research question previously set.

5.1.1 Analysis of Exploratory Phase Data

The analysis in this section is made with data obtained from an informal discussion designed for teachers and an FGD assigned for students.

5.1.1.1 Analysis of Informal Discussion. To explore the teachers' perceptions of the research problem, an informal discussion is held with six oral expression teachers at Setif-2 Mohamed Lamine Debaghine University. Initially, teachers were asked whether their students have difficulties in their listening comprehension achievement or not and to mention the

possible reasons according to them. Most of the teachers confirm that the students have serious problems when given listening materials. A summary of the possible motives for the difficulties their students have when listening is the lack of practice, the accent, hard language, and speed of speech. After that, teachers are asked about their students' level of cultural knowledge and if they think their level can affect their students' listening comprehension. All the teachers agreed on the fact that students lack cultural knowledge and sometimes they do not understand the listening materials, especially authentic ones because they contain a lot of cultural expressions. Thus, teachers feel that cultural knowledge might affect their understanding of the speech given. Finally, the discussion concluded by suggesting that all teachers should include more cultural content in teaching oral expression to promote students' listening comprehension ability.

5.1.1.2 Analysis of Focus Group Discussion. The second tool used in the exploratory phase is an FGD. A group of ten second-year students is asked questions about the research problem in a form of a discussion. First, the majority of students rate their listening comprehension skills as poor or average and consider it the most difficult skill for them due to many reasons. Some students say that the accent and speed of speech are the reasons for the difficulties in understanding the listening material; however, others consider hard language and lack of practice as the main reasons. Again, students were asked about their knowledge of the target culture. Some said that they know some basic knowledge of the American culture in specific, which they find in movies and social media. Yet, a significant number of students confirmed their lack of cultural knowledge is it American or British. Afterward, the students behold that having cultural background knowledge (American or British) might help them better understand the listening material given. They all agreed that most of the conversations heard are culturally loaded. By the end, the whole group of students encouraged and strongly

suggested the teaching of more cultural content in oral expression class to better improve the listening comprehension ability.

5.1.2 Analysis of the Pre-Experimental Data

Before the experiment, this study employed a placement test to ensure the participants' level in English and the cultural intelligence scale to test their cultural background knowledge. The analyses of data obtained from both tests are to be presented next.

5.1.2.1 Analysis of Participants' Personal Information. This section is meant to analyze and compare the data obtained from the experimental and the control group in terms of gender and language level and cultural background knowledge.

- **Gender**

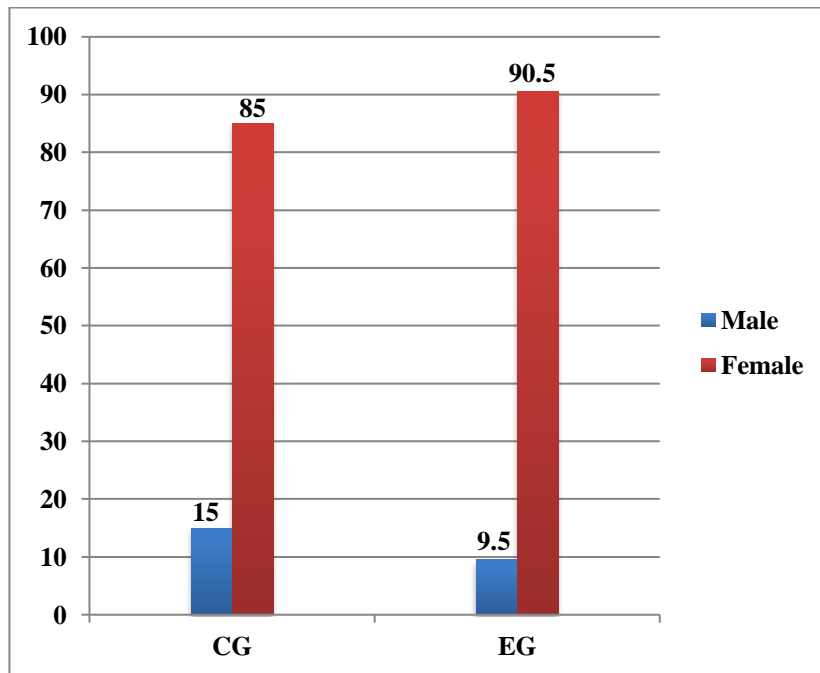
Table 10

Comparison of Gender in EG and CG

Gender	Control group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Male	3	15	2	9.5
Female	17	85	19	90.5
Total	20	100	21	100

Figure 7

Comparison of Gender in EG and CG



The table above shows the comparison of gender distribution in both the control group and the experimental group. The table reveals that the EG and CG are equal in terms of the distribution of both genders (males and females). It is shown that in the two groups the majority of participants are females (85% in CG and 90.5% in EG). Thus, the results presented validate the homogeneity of the EG and the CG at the level of the gender that lessens the risk of gender effect on the study.

5.1.2.2 Analysis of Placement Test.

Table 11

Comparison of Placement Test between CG and EG

Placment_test		Control group		Experimental Group	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
[0 - 40]	Pre –Intermediate	8	40	8	38.1
[41 - 80]	Intermediate	12	60	13	61.9
Total		20	100	21	100

Figure 8

Comparison of Placement Test between CG and EG

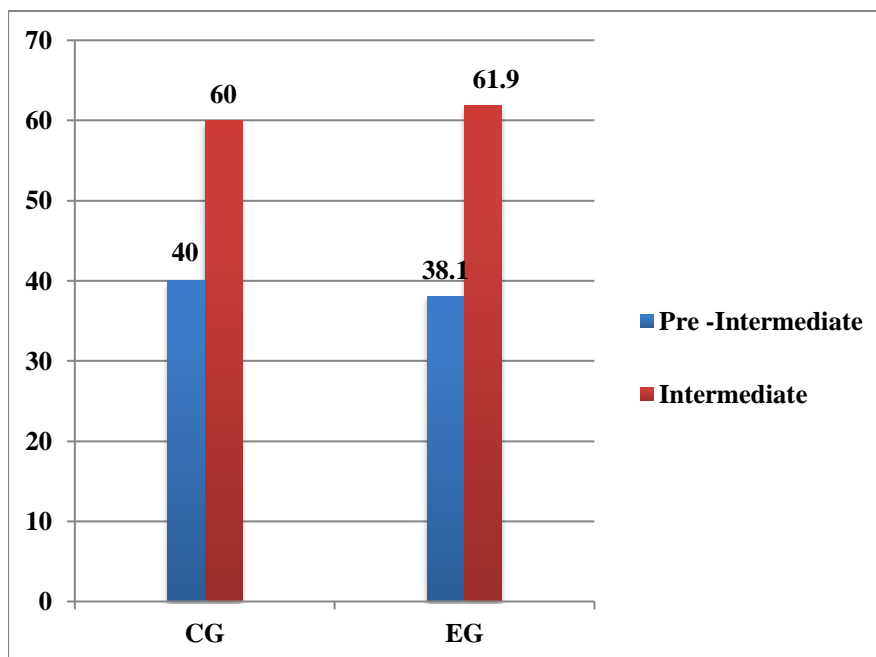


Table 11 is meant to compare the English language level test between the EG and the CG.

The participants' answers show that a great portion of participants (60 % in CG and 61.9% in

EG) fall under the intermediate level. Again, the results confirm the homogeneity of the two groups in terms of language level.

5.1.2.3 Analysis of Culture Intelligence Scale

In this seven points Likert scale test, Mann-Whitney U is used in order to test the hypothesis and to identify the statistically significant differences between the mean rank of the EG and the CG on the culture scale as a pre-test. The results are shown in the following table.

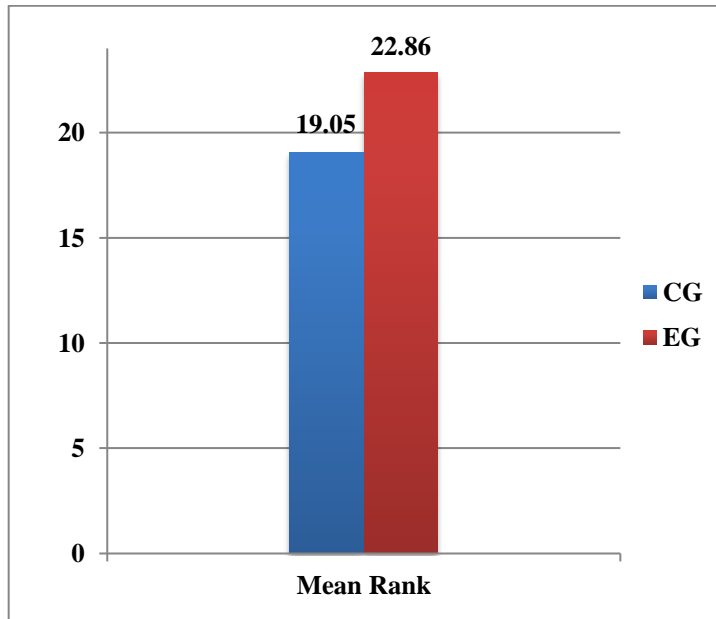
Table 12

Mann-Whitney results of the Culture Intelligence Scale mean Rank between EG and CG

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Sig
Control Group	20	19.05	381	171	1.01	0.30
Experimental Group	21	22.86	480			

Figure 9

Mann-Whitney results of the Culture Intelligence Scale mean Rank between EG and CG



The table above reveals the answers of the EG and the CG on the culture intelligence scale as a pre-test, which results in the Mann-Whitney U value as (171) and the Z as (1.01). When comparing the statistical value set (0.05) with the sig. of the value obtained (sig=0.30) that is bigger than the value set (sig= 0.30 >0.05), it is proven that there is no statistically significant difference between the groups. Thus, the EG and the CG are homogenous in terms of their cultural knowledge before the experiment.

5.1.2.4 Analysis of T-test Choice

According to Yim et al. (2010A), a t-test is a type of statistical test that is used to compare the means of two groups. It is one of the most widely used statistical hypothesis tests in pain studies. To ensure the choice of the test used in this study, two tests namely test of homogeneity and test of normality are calculated.

- **Test of Homogeneity**

Table 13

Results of Homogeneity Test of CG and EG Pre-test

CG_EG_Pre - Test			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
0.086	1	39	0.771

- **Test of Normality**

The table above is about comparing the pre-test scores of the two groups CG and EG to check the homogeneity of The test used and to validate or not validate the statistical hypothesis about the significance mean (**H0: S1 = S2** and **H1: S1 ≠ S2**). The findings reveal that the scores are homogeneous with a significant mean of 0.77 which is more than the mean set 0.05 and thereby we validate the H0 which states both groups are homogeneous in terms of their scores before the treatment.

Table 14

Results of Pre-Test Normality Test of CG and EG

	Tests of Normality					
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre – Test CG	0.165	20	0.154	0.937	20	0.211
Pre – Test EG	0.105	20	0.200	0.966	20	0.669

Figure 10

Pre-Test Normality Test of CG

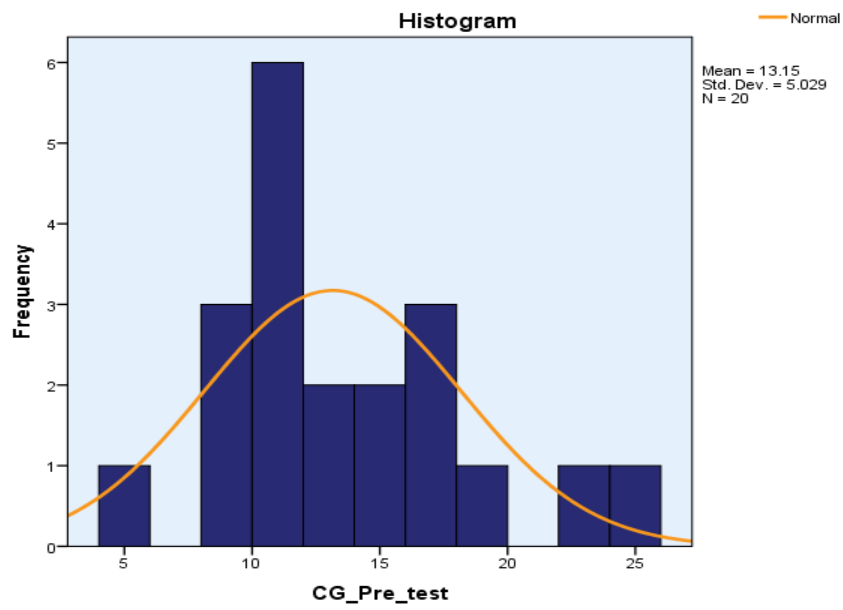


Figure 11

Pre-Test Normality Test of EG

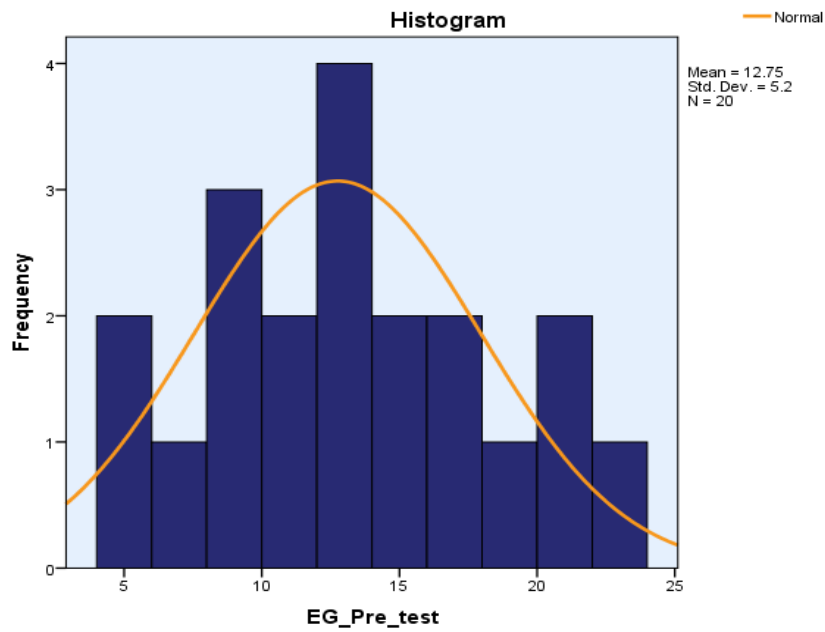


Table 14 represents the test of normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk) used to determine if data are well modeled by a normal distribution or not. For instance, in the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, a comparison is made between the significant level (alpha) set for the study (0.05) with the significant mean computed in both groups (CG=0.15) and EG=0.20. Based on the results, the significance value is bigger than alpha (**sig.=0.15/0.20 > 0.05**), which entails that data follow a normal distribution. There is no statistically significant difference between the significance level of both groups.

5.1.3 Analysis of Experimental Data

In the experimental phase, scores of the pre-test and post-test of both groups are collected in order to test the hypothesis put for this investigation. In doing so, the study employs an independent samples t-Test which aims at comparing the means of precisely two independent groups to determine whether the means of the two populations are significantly different or not. In addition, paired-samples t-Test is also used. It is meant for comparing the measurements taken from the same group at two different times, that is, comparing the scores of a pre-test and post-test of one group after treatment is provided in between. The following tables represent the results of the experimental and control groups' performance comparison made in the two aforementioned t-Tests.

5.1.3.1 Pre-Test Mean Scores of the Control and the Experimental Groups.

Table 15

Pre-Test Mean Scores of the Control and the Experimental Groups

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control group	20	13.15	5.02
Experimental Group	21	13.14	5.37

Figure 12

Pre-Test Mean Scores of the Control and the Experimental Groups

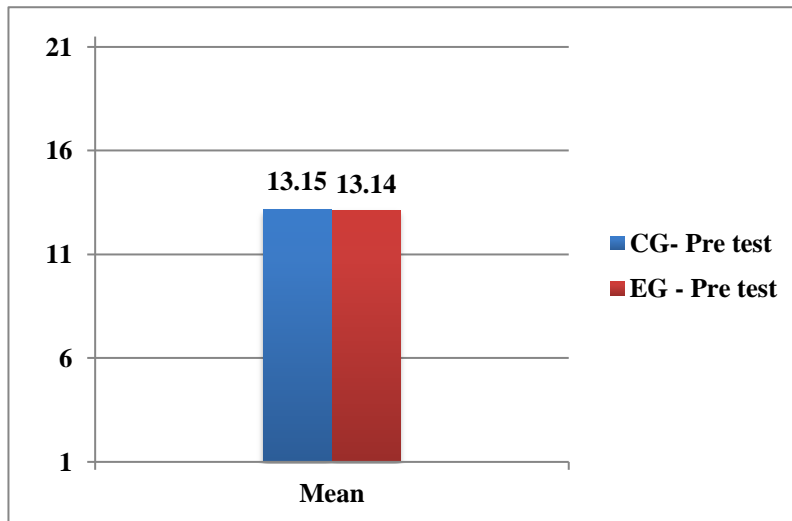


Table 15 demonstrates that the mean scores of the experimental and the control groups in the pre-test are almost identical (CG =13.15, EG=13.14). There is no significant difference in the scores, which proves the homogeneity of both groups before receiving any treatment.

5.1.3.2 Independent-Samples T-Test

- **Independent T-Test of the Pre-Tests of the Control and the Experimental Groups**

The table below illustrates the comparison made between the CG and the EG groups in terms of their performances in the pre-test. Based on the t value calculated (0.004) and the degree of freedom which was (df=39), there is no statistically significant difference between the CG and the EG groups as the significance value found was bigger than alpha (sig.= 0.99 >0.05). Therefore, the two groups are homogenous at the level of their listening comprehension pre-test.

Table 16*Results of Independent T-Test of the Pre-Tests of the CG and EG*

Groups	N	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	T	df	Sig.
Control group	20	0.007	1.62	0.004	39	0.997
Experimental Group	21					

- **Independent T-Test of the Post-Tests of the Control and the Experimental Groups**

Null Hypothesis: mean difference of the control group on the post-test = the mean difference of the experimental group on the post-test

Alternative Hypothesis: mean difference of the control group on the post-test \neq the mean difference of the experimental group on the post-test

Table 17*Post-Test Mean Scores of the Control and the Experimental Groups*

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control group	20	27.40	7.78
Experimental Group	21	35.14	4.18

Figure 13

Post-Test Mean Scores of the Control and the Experimental Groups

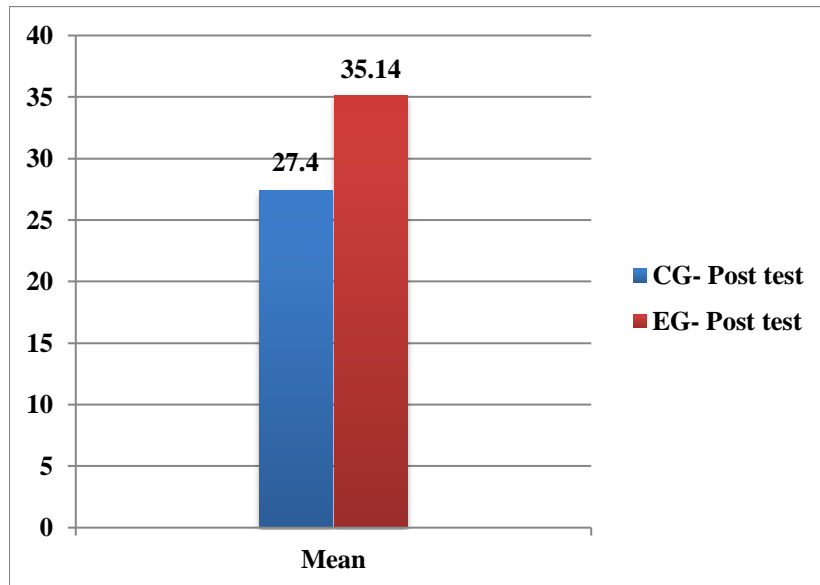


Table 18

Results of Independent T-Test of the Post-Tests of the CG and the EG

Groups	N	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	T	df	Sig.
Control group	20	7.74	1.93	3.99	39	0.000
Experimental Group	21					

The above tables reveal the difference between the EG and CG groups in terms of the scores obtained from the post-test. From the t value calculated (3.99) and the degree of freedom (39), it is observed that there is a statistically significant difference in the scores of the post-test between the EG and the CG (sig.= 0.000 < 0.05). Consequently, the null hypothesis (H0) is rejected while the alternative hypothesis is accepted because the mean difference between the two groups is calculated as (7.74), which is in favor of the experimental group with an average mean of (35.14).

5.1.3.3. Paired Samples T-Test.

- **Paired Samples T-Test of the Performance of the EG on the Pre- and the Post-Test**

Table 19

Post- and Pre-Test Mean Scores of the Experimental Group

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental Group Pre -Test	21	13.14	5.37
Experimental Group Post-Test	21	35.14	4.18

Figure 14

Post- and Pre-Test Mean Scores of the Experimental Group

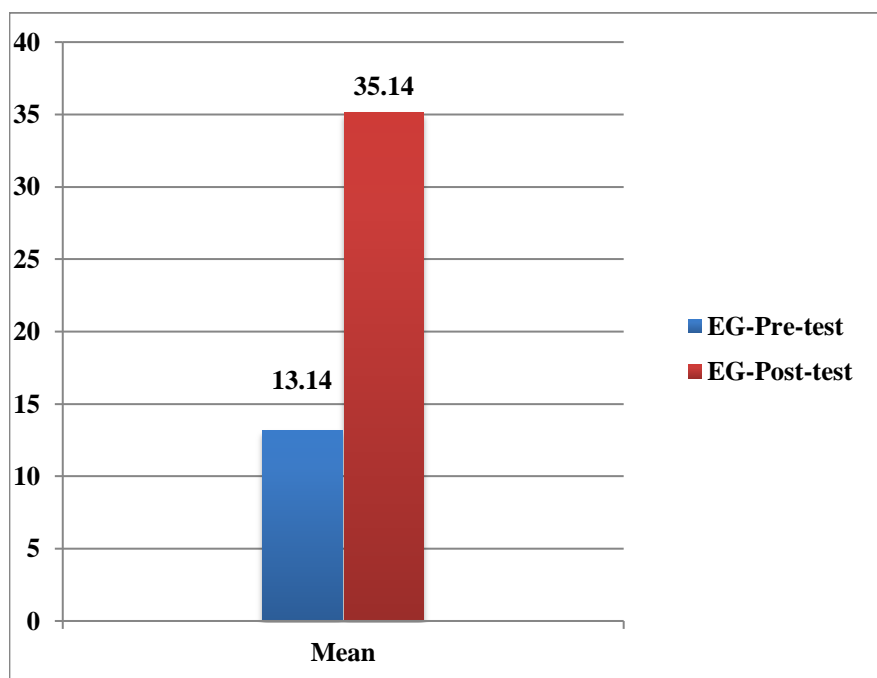


Table 20

Results of Paired Samples T-Test of the Post- and Pre-Tests of the EG

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Difference	T	df	Sig.
Experimental Group Pre Test	21					
		22	8.19	12.29	20	0.000
Experimental Group Post-Test	21					

The comparison made between the experimental group's performance on the listening pre-and post-test is shown in the table above. It is observed from the t value calculated (12.29) and the degree of freedom (20) that the significance value calculated is smaller than alpha value of this study ($\text{sig.} = 0.000 < 0.05$), which results in a statistically significant difference

marked in the EG performance on their pre-post test results with a mean value of (mean =22). These results are in favor of the experimental group in the post-test performance (mean=35.14).

- **Paired Samples T-Test of the Performance of the Control Group on the Pre Test and the Post-Test**

Table 21

Post- and Pre-Test Mean Scores of the Control Group

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control Group Pre -Test	20	13.15	5.02
Control Group Post-Test	20	27.40	7.78

Figure 15

Post- and Pre-Test Mean Scores of the Control Group

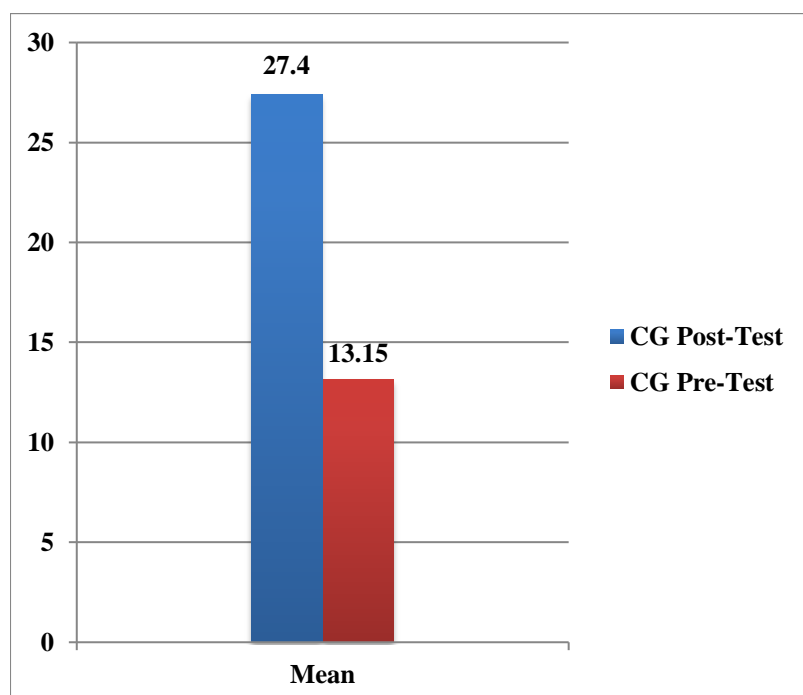


Table 22*Results of Paired Samples T-Test of the Post- and Pre-Tests of the CG*

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Difference	T	df	Sig.
Control Group Pre Test	20	14.25	9.15	6.96	19	0.000
Control Group Post-Test	20					

The comparison of the control group in the post and pre-test performance is clearly shown in table 22. Given the t value calculated (T=6.96) and the freedom degree (fd=19), there is a quite statistically significant difference between the pre-and post-test of the same group (sig. = 0.000 < 0.05).

5.1.3.4 The Effect Size (Eta) of Independent Samples T-Test.

Table 23*Results of the Effect Size of Independent Samples T-Test*

Eta for Independent Samples T-Test	Effect Size
	0.736

Table 24*Interpretation of the Results of the Effect Size of the Independent Samples T-Test*

Relative size	Effect size
Small effect	0.01
Medium effect	0.06
Large effect	0.14

To examine the effect of the whole experiment, the effect size for independent samples T-test is calculated. Based on the results presented above in table 23 about the effect size (Eta), it is concluded that the experiment has a large effect with a value of (0.73).

5.1.4 Analysis of Post –Experimental Data

5.1.4.1 Culture Intelligence Scale (Post-Test).

- **Mann Whitney**

The same culture intelligence scale is distributed to participants as a post-test. As a means of data analysis procedure, the Mann Whitney U is used to observe the significant difference between the mean ranks of the EG and the CG on the culture knowledge post-test, as shown in the table below.

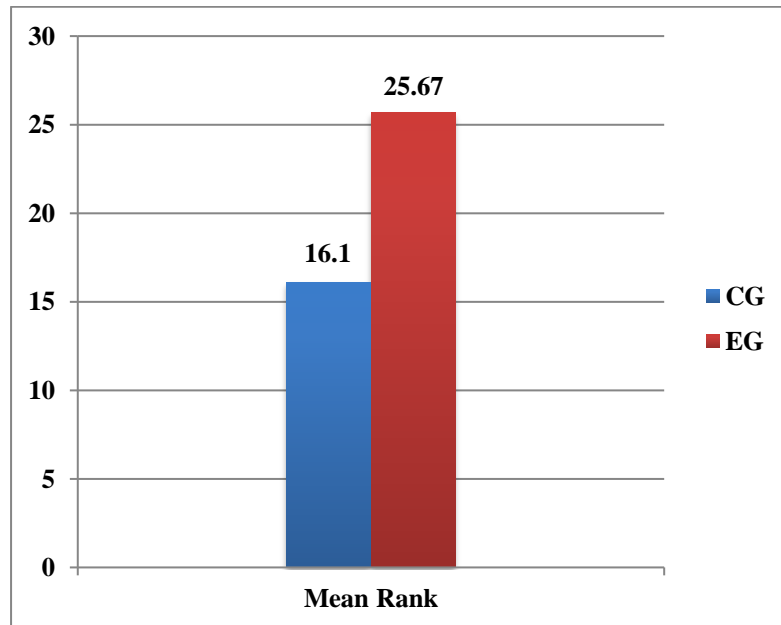
Table 25

Mann-Whitney Results of Culture Intelligence Scale of CG and EG

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Sig
Control Group	20	16.10	322			
Experimental Group	21	25.67	539	112	2.55	0.01

Figure 16

Mann-Whitney Results of Culture Intelligence Scale of CG and EG



After calculating the participants' results from both groups (EG and CG), the value found for Mann-Whitney U is (112), and the Z value is ($Z=2.55$). Also, the calculated significance value ($\text{sig}=0.01$) is smaller than the alpha value set for this study ($\text{sig.}= 0.1 < 0.05$). These findings prove that there is a statistically significant difference between both groups on the post-test. In other words, there is a significant change in the participants' answers after the experiment.

- **Wilcoxon**

As part of hypothesis testing and to verify the effectiveness of treatment given on the participants' cultural knowledge, a Wilcoxon analysis is attempted on comparing the pre-and .post-test performances in the EG and the CG

a) Pre- Post test in EG

Table 26

Wilcoxon Results of Culture Intelligence Scale of EG

EG -Pre – Post-Test	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Z	P
Negative Ranks	6	7.33	44	2.48	0.01
Positive Ranks	15	12.47	187		
Equal	0				
Total	21				

Figure 17

Wilcoxon Results of Culture Intelligence Scale of EG

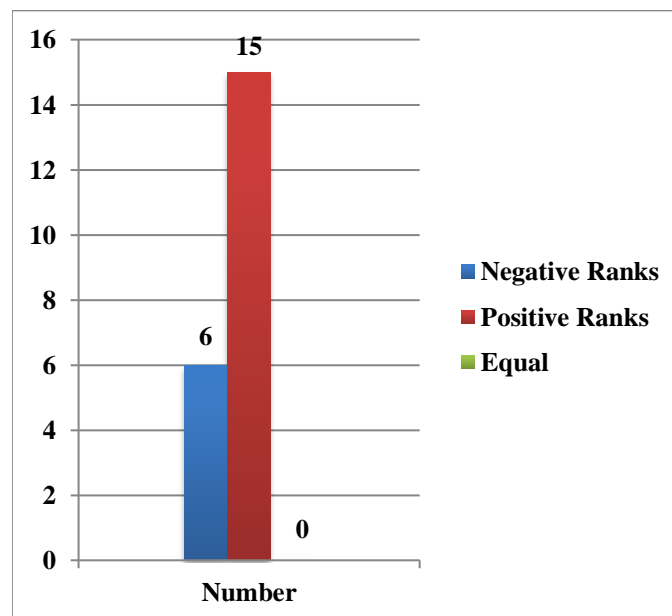


Table 26 demonstrates the total answers of the EG on the cultural intelligence scale as a pre and post-test. the results show that the Z value (Z= 2.48) and the significance value

calculated as (sig/p =0.01), which is smaller than the alpha value set (0.05). This ascertains that there is a statistically significant difference in the EG answers on the culture pre and post-test. The mean rank calculated (12.47) shows that 15=n of participants had positively been affected by the treatment designed (positive ranks) while 6 participants had negative rank which means the treatment did not affect them in any way .

b) Pre- Post Test in CG

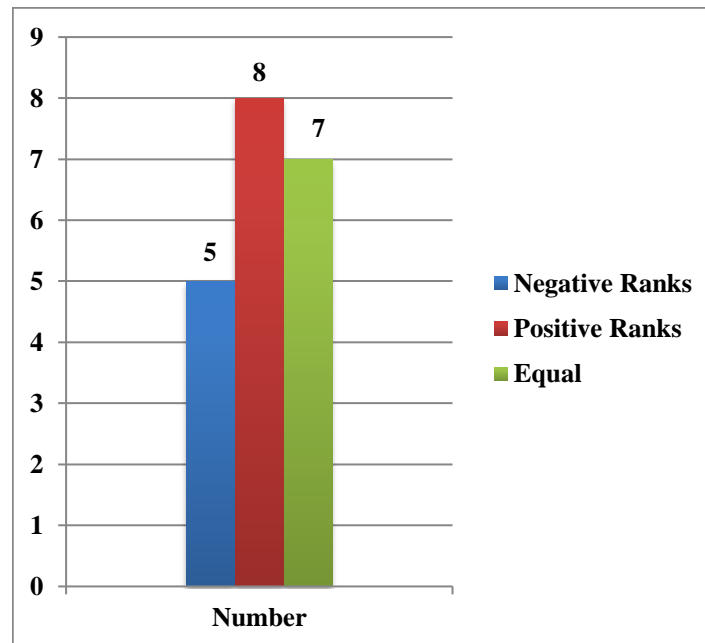
Table 27

Wilcoxon Results of Culture Intelligence Scale of CG

CG -Pre – Post-Test	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Z	P
Negative Ranks	5	8.40	42		
Positive Ranks	8	6.13	49	0.24	0.80
Equal	7				
Total	20				

Figure 18

Wilcoxon Results of Culture Intelligence Scale of CG



The table above reveals the CG answers on the culture intelligence scale as a pre-and post-test. From the Z value calculated ($z= 0.24$) and the significance value ($p= 0.80$), it is concluded that there is no statistically significant difference in the participants' answers on the culture pre and post-test ($p= 0.80 >0.05$). As shown above, the number of participants affected is only eight (08) with (positive ranks). While five (05) participants have negatively affected, seven (07) were equal in their answers and were affected neither positively nor negatively.

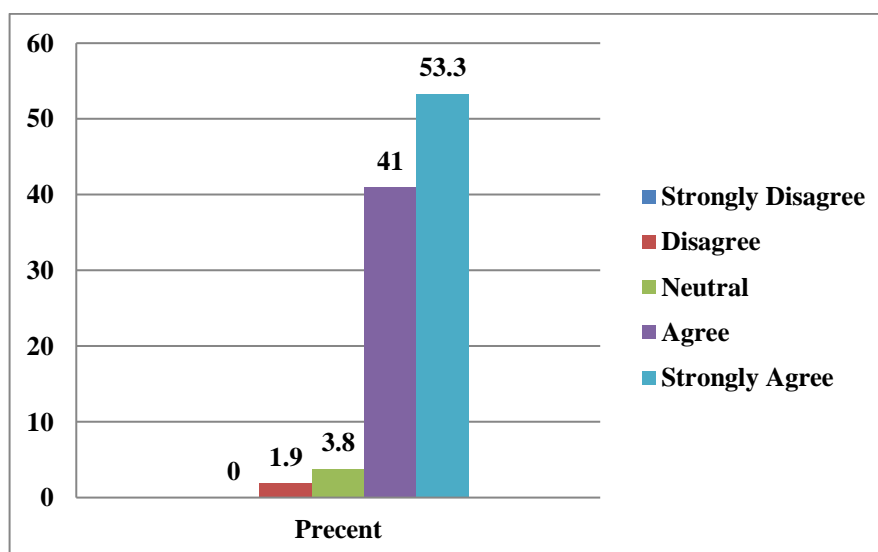
5.1.4.2 Analysis of perceptions questionnaire (satisfaction scale). To measure the efficiency of the experiment, a questionnaire was given to the participants by the end to explore their feedback and satisfaction with the whole experiment. Table 28 below denotes that the majority of participants agree (41%) and strongly agree (53.3%) on the five items. This shows that participants are satisfied with the experiment conducted.

Table 28*Results of Perceptions Likert Scale Questionnaire*

N	Items	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1	I gained more cultural awareness at the end of the experiment	0	0	0	0	2	9.5	8	38.1	11	52.4
2	The cultural content I gained during the experiment helps me understand the listening tasks	0	0	1	4.8	0	0	9	42.9	11	52.4
3	I find it easy now to understand the listening materials in the IELTS listening test	0	0	1	4.8	1	4.8	11	52.4	8	38.1
4	I perform better when I have cultural knowledge on listening tasks than ever	0	0	0	0	1	4.8	12	57.1	8	38.1
5	I am satisfied with being taught with a culture based syllabus	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	14.3	18	85.7
Total		0	0	2	1.9	4	3.8	43	41	56	53.3

Figure 19

Results of Perceptions Likert Scale Questionnaire



5.2 Data interpretation

This section is dedicated to the interpretation of data obtained throughout the different phases of the study, namely the exploratory, pre-experimental, experimental, and post-experimental phases. Data are interpreted in accordance with the results obtained to examine to what extent the cultural-related syllabus designed as an intervention affects the participants' listening comprehension.

5.2.1 Interpretation of Pre-Experimental Data

The pre-experimental phase consists of a placement test in English and cultural knowledge level test which are adopted to ensure the homogeneity of the participants from the EG and the CG. First, at the level of personal information, only gender is examined. Participants of the experimental (n= 21) and the control group (n=20) are equal in gender distribution. to illustrate, both groups have an almost close number of males with a percentage of 15 % in CG and 9.5%, and females constitute a great portion in both groups (EG=85 %, CG= 90). Another test of homogeneity was the Pearson placement test. From the

aforementioned results, the majority of participants (60% CG and 61.9% EG) share a similar level in English, that is intermediate. As for the participants' cultural knowledge, a Mann – Whitney type of data analysis is used. In the Mann-Whitney comparison between the EG and the CG on the Pre-test, the results reveal no significant differences between the EG and the CG. This in turn shows the homogeneity of both groups before being exposed to any treatment. Finally, a statistical analysis is done on the homogeneity of both groups in terms of their score in the listening pre-test. When comparing the participants' scores on the listening IELTS before the treatment, no significant difference is detected between the groups. As a result, all participants are equal at the level of listening pre-test performance.

The results support the nonequivalent of the research sample. Despite the non-randomized sampling in this study, the sample (EG and CG) is proven to be homogeneous and equivalent. This in turn can strengthen the internal validity of the study. The non-equivalence of participants in all respects is taken as a threat to the internal validity of research due to the non-random selection of the sample. Campell and Stanely (1966) described several particular threats to internal validity such as selection which could lead to a lack of equivalence of the participants in the groups and, thus, influences the results.

5.2.2 Interpretation of Experimental Phase Results (Hypothesis Testing)

The main objective of this research is to assess the effectiveness of the treatment viz. to test to what extent a cultural relevance intervention can affect students listening comprehension. By doing so, the results of the listening pre and post-test are analyzed to observe any significant difference. The difference is also seen when a comparison is made within each group before and after receiving the treatment. Thus, the results are interpreted accordingly. On the one hand, the Independent Samples T-test reveals no significant difference between the scores of the EG and the CG on the pre-test. This can be due to the homogenous level of participants and their similar cultural background level. These outcomes

entail that this experiment starts out on right foot where participants were almost identical in terms of their cultural and listening comprehension levels so that convenient results can be obtained after the intervention is assigned. On the other hand, in the independent sample t-test done between the experimental group and the control group scores on the post-test, a significant difference is marked. Participants from the experimental group performed higher than the control. The EG mean average was (35.14) while the control was (27.40) and thus having a mean difference of (7.74) which is quite significant.

The Differences in the independent sample T-test score comparison on the post-test are in favor of the experimental group which is consistent with the research alternative hypothesis which says that “If second-year English students have cultural background knowledge, there will a statistically significant impact on the mean ranks on their listening comprehension post-test if EG group is compared to CG” and thus the null hypothesis is rejected. These results indicate that participants being exposed to culturally related materials helps learners perform higher /better in listening comprehension. These findings go in the same line with a study conducted on EFL Iranian learners where participants performed differently on the post-test indicating that familiarity with culturally-oriented language material promotes the Iranian EFL learners' listening proficiency (Hayati, 2009).

To deeply observe the change and the effectiveness of cultural and lack of cultural materials on the participants' listening test scores, the paired sample T-test is used to compare the experimental group performance on the pre and post-IELTS test. The mean difference detected was (22) between the pre and post-test (Pre-test = 13.14 Post test =35.14). The results unveiled a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) in the experimental performance after being exposed to the treatment. Similarly, Al-Khresheh (2020) concluded that cultural background has a significant effect on Saudi EFL learners' listening process. Therefore, listening ability is to a great degree complex critical thinking activity in which background

knowledge assumes a noteworthy role (Brown, 2000). Fruitful listening will happen, when audience members can connect the new listening texts with earlier learning in their brains (Bilokcuoglu, 2014).

Furthermore, the paired sample T-test is also used to compare the pre and post-test scores of the control group. As previously mentioned, the control group received no treatment and was assigned a regular syllabus meant for second-year oral expression classes. The findings show that on the pre-test the mean was (13.14) and on the post-test (27.25) with a mean difference of (14.25). A significant difference is detected in the control group even though it did not receive any treatment. This can be justified by the fact that the lessons given by the OE teacher of the control group, which were based on listening to authentic listening passages. Even though, the researcher herself was responsible for coordinating the OE syllabus for the year of the experiment, she tries to keep the same old lessons taught in the previous years. Despite the marked difference, it is not that remarkable compared to that of the treatment group. This stands as a piece of evidence of the importance of cultural knowledge. If learners do not have related knowledge about various points in their brain, they will not understand the new listening passage well (Bilokcuoglu, 2014; Meinhof, 1998).

After experimenting, the effect size (Eta) is calculated. Eventually, this study has a large effect size with a value of (0.73.) This stands as an advantage for the syllabus designed as a treatment. Students were exposed to culturally related materials for the whole academic year that enabled them to gain cultural knowledge that had a significant impact on their listening performance. These results come in conformity with the view of incorporating culture in language teaching. This study displayed that cultural familiarity and knowledge significantly affect students' listening comprehension. Similarly, it is agreed upon that listeners are expected to accomplish the writer's proposed meaning by mixing existing data with what they

listen to (Bacon, 1992; Chastain, 1998; Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Long, 1990; Markham & Latham, 1987; Mueller, 1980; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994).

5.2.3 Interpretation of Post-Experimental Results

5.2.3.1 Culture Intelligence Scale (Post-Test). The data obtained from the cultural scale post-test of both groups (EG and CG) are compared using Mann Whitney analysis procedure. It showed that there is a significant difference of (sig.= 0.01), which is smaller than alpha value (0.05). These results stand as proof of the improvement of the treatment group's cultural level during the instruction period of the study. This means that teachers can help learners gain cultural knowledge by choosing the appropriate content because having inadequate background knowledge prompts misconception, so instructors should assist learners with building up new background information and help them initiate their current background learning (Bilokcuoglu, 2014).

As a means to exhaustively observe the change in the participants' cultural level before and after the intervention assigned, the Wilcoxon comparison is employed. The difference is clear in the experimental group before and after the treatment (sig. = 0.01 <0.05), where the majority of participants were affected by the treatment (mean of positive rank = 12.47). However, the control group did not show any significant difference (sig.=0.80 > 0.05). These findings come as a result of a lack of cultural content exposure. The results mean that the teacher can boost learners' knowledge by having them exposed to the desired content. Gaining cultural knowledge reflects positively on their listening comprehension performance as shown in the aforementioned. To support, Brown (2000) confirms that listening ability is to a great degree complex critical thinking activity in which background knowledge assumes a noteworthy role. The results also prove that students gained cultural knowledge for this reason they did well on their listening test. This conclusion is in line with Schmidt-Rinehart's (1994)

results which pertain that subjects scored higher on listening passage when they have cultural familiarity.

5.2.3.2 Perceptions Questionnaire. The results of the Likert scale, given after the experiment, show that participants have positive attitudes toward the use of the culture base syllabus to promote the listening comprehension skill. These findings go along with Tsou (2005) who suggests that the effect of cultural instruction on language learning was positive. He maintains that the results of the interviews indicated that including cultural instruction in the language classroom could help increase students' motivation toward language learning. In addition, participants demonstrated a positive attitude towards the relationship between having cultural knowledge and their listening performances. In this regard, Hayati (2009) showed that students exposed to culture performed differently on the post-test indicating that familiarity with cultural content improves learners' listening proficiency. All in all, students' positive satisfaction with the experiment entails that that topic familiarity (Schmidt-Rinehart, 1992), prior knowledge (Dunkel, 1991), and religious background (Markham & Latham, 1987) had a significant effect on a subjects' listening comprehension achievement.

5.3 Discussion of the Results

The data analyzed and interpreted above is an attempt to answer the research questions aforementioned. As for the quantitative results, there is no significant difference between the CG and the EG in terms of their cultural level and their listening test performance before the exposure to any cultural content. So, participants are equivalent before the experiment. However, the significant difference is clear between the groups after the period of the treatment which entails the effectiveness of the content taught in raising the students' cultural knowledge. Thus, students by the end of the treatment gained background based on the cultural content provided during the period of the intervention.

To answer the research question of the impact of cultural background knowledge on students listening comprehension performances, a considerable number of participants from the EG display a significant improvement in the level of cultural background knowledge. It is explained that after the analysis, these participants, having the needed cultural knowledge enabled them to perform well on their listening tasks. In fact, a significant difference is detected between the EG and the CG and within the experimental group itself before and after the experiment . Consequently, these results come in favor of the alternative hypothesis and thus the null hypothesis is rejected. In other words, this experiment shows that cultural background knowledge has a positive effect on EFL learners' listening comprehension skill.

Furthermore, it is noteworthy mentioning that there was a quite significant difference in the scores of the control group before and after the experiment. Despite the lack of any culturally based syllabus designed by the group, participants from the CG gained cultural knowledge as shown in the cultural intelligence scale and achieved higher scores on the listening test compared to the scores at the beginning of the semester. This is to say that students in OE class gain cultural knowledge but unconsciously because of the teachers' choices that the researcher herself cannot control. The teaching of culture is intentionally or planned.

In addition, the second research question tackles the participants' perceptions of the experiment and the integration of a culturally-based syllabus in an Oral Expression class to boost listening comprehension ability. The students' answers to the perceptions questionnaire were positive towards the use of culturally based content and the teacher's attempt to raise their cultural background knowledge. Their responses confirm the validity of the experiment. Students were motivated and due to their high scores on the IELTS listening post-test after considering it as very hard at the beginning of the semester.

5.4 Pedagogical Implications

The results obtained from this study stand as evidence for the possible effects of cultural background knowledge on students' listening comprehension. It is concluded that integrating a culturally-based syllabus in OE classes can enrich students' background knowledge of the target culture and in return boost their listening achievement. These results can have pedagogical implications, namely for teachers, students/learners, curriculum coordinators, administrators, and policymakers.

5.4.1 Implications for Teachers

The implication of this research constitutes raising teachers' awareness teaching of culture to improve their students' listening skills. Teachers of oral expression classes are encouraged to pay more attention to the issue of developing their learners' listening comprehension ability. As concluded from the current investigation, teachers can help learners gain background knowledge on the target culture. Integrating cultural content in OE classes requires teachers to develop their skills in choosing method, approaches, and activities needed. Also, teachers not only can help promote listening skills but also can help promote intercultural competence and prepare learners for future intercultural discussions and encounters.

5.4.2 Implications for Students

This study has a major implication for EFL learners in particular. In the process of gaining cultural knowledge, learners get to develop autonomous learning skills through the activities and research assigned to them. Also, learners have the chance to gain linguistic and contextual aspects of language, which may help them improve not only their listening comprehension but also other language skills especially productive skills like speaking. Having cultural knowledge of the target language enables them to reflect on their own and

eventually boost their critical thinking capacities. It raises their motivation whenever they are exposed to content related to the real world and contextualized materials.

5.4.3 Implications for Administrators (Curriculum Coordinators) and Policy Makers

At the level of the English department, administrators and curriculum coordinators are invited to incorporate authentic and culturally based syllabus for teaching OE courses and enhancing listening skills in specific. The study at hand not only proves to help eliminate challenges students have in their listening comprehension but also may be an advantage for raising learners' intercultural awareness. In addition, the official oral expression program designed for English language courses by the ministry (CANEVA) does not put much emphasis and details on how the EO course should be taught, especially in reference to culture. Being a fundamental unit, policymakers should shift attention from emphasizing teaching vocabulary, idioms, and random topics. Therefore, the intervention designed for this experiment might be a suggested syllabus for the OE course because it covers it all.

5.5 Limitations and Recommendations for further research

It is taken for granted that any research conducted in the human sciences field is doubtlessly not exact and the results are relative. This research is a quasi-experimental and its limitations are discussed as follows.

Random selection of the sample is one of the limitations featuring this investigation. The researcher was not able to randomly select the groups of the sample for this study because they are generally assigned by the administration. As a result, this non-random selection jeopardized the external validity of this research. To eliminate this risk, researchers are advised to conduct the same study using more true experimental procedures.

Another limitation for this study is that the researcher herself was the teacher. The researcher taught the experimental group Oral Expression the whole year. It was impossible to

assign another teacher to use the syllabus designed inside the OE class. So, further researcher should have another teacher for the same research to better ensure the objectivity of the experiment.

In addition, the study at hand did not examine the impact of the different types of culture. The experiment only focused on American and British cultural content. Therefore, testing the impact of the different types of cultures, namely local, target and international is recommended.

Finally, this study aims at only observing the impact of cultural content on learners listening comprehension skill only. As a recommendation for future research, this study can be a source of insight for researchers in the field where the impact of culturally oriented intervention is test on not only on the receptive skill, but also on the productive skill of speaking, the communicative and the intercultural competences

Conclusion

To sum up, this chapter is unquestionably at the core of this Quasi-experimental research. It constitutes the analysis of data results of the tests used throughout the investigation, namely qualitative and quantitative. After data analysis section, the interpretation and discussion of the results are placed. By the end, this chapter finishes by stating some pedagogical implications this study may have and limitations and recommendations for future researchers in the same filed.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

General Conclusion

The language-culture relationship has undoubtedly gained much interest from researchers and especially teachers of foreign languages. English foreign language for example developed the need for the full and direct integration of teaching culture in the curriculum because of the significant impact culture has on developing language skills. Listening comprehension skill is considered a challenge for both teachers and learners, being aware of the target culture can help lessen if not eliminate such a challenge. Therefore, the current research aims at investigating the impact of cultural background knowledge on listening comprehension. The case study of this research comprises second-year English majors at setif2 university class 2019-2020.

The nature of this research is quasi-experimental because of the non-random selection of the sample. Seeking to confirm or reject the hypothesis set, this quasi-experimental investigation goes through different phases in which different research tools and tests are used. To start with, the problem diagnosis phases were meant to identify and state the research problem using an informal discussion with oral expression teachers and a focus group discussion with English majors. After asserting the existence of the research problem, the investigation started with testing the homogeneity of the research sample (experiment group and control group). In doing so, the researcher adopted the Pearson placement test to identify the sample's English level and a cultural intelligence scale to distinguish their level of cultural awareness.

Second, in the experimental phase, the teacher delivered the IELTS listening test (A1) as a pre-test to observe the change in the students listening scores before and after the treatment. The treatment consists of ten (10) lessons designed to reflect cultural content and aim at teaching culture directly. The intervention lasted for 12 weeks long for 3 hours a week,

one hour and a half devoted to a lab session where students are assigned to listening materials and activities, and an in-class session for role-plays and presentations. Right after the treatment, participants took the same culture intelligence scale to test any change in their cultural knowledge level after being exposed to the culturally based content. In addition, participants sat for the same IELTS listening test but a different example (A2) in the form of a post-testing of their performance again after the treatment. These two tests are given to both groups as an attempt to observe the change in both of them and compare.

The results of this experiment are shown and interpreted respectively. The sample results of the tests of homogeneity were positive in the sense that participants were equivalent in terms of their English level and cultural background knowledge. They were homogenous before conducting the study which helped in receiving convenient results after the experiment was conducted. Furthermore, in the listening pre-test, participants' (EG and CG) scores were almost similar. However, there was a statistically significant difference in the EG groups themselves (mean difference= 22) and between the CG (mean= 27.40) and EG (mean= 35.14) on the listening pre and post-tests performances. In the end, the treatment group's perceptions were positive about the experiment, and were highly satisfied with and motivated by the experiment.

All in all, a remarkable effect size ($\eta^2 = 0.73$) this experiment showed entails the positive impact cultural background knowledge has on learners' listening comprehension achievement. Based on this conclusion, researchers, policymakers, administrators, and foreign language learners are advised to emphasize the importance of integrating culture inside the classroom adopt the teaching culture in a more direct way to improve not only learners' listening comprehension but also to develop their learning skills in general.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

STUDENTS' INFORMED CONSENT AGREEMENT

Mohamed Lamine Debaghine (Sétif 2) University

Faculty of Literature and Foreign Languages

Department of English Language and Literature

Research Title: The Impact of Cultural Knowledge on Listening Comprehension.

Researcher: Keraghel Lyna, Setif-2 University

Purpose of Research

My research examines whether cultural background knowledge has an impact on students' listening comprehension. It aims at examining second year English majors at Setif 2 university the impact of their background knowledge of the target culture on their listening comprehension performances. Data will be collected via a pre and post tests to observe the change students will have in their cultural level and listening comprehension achievement after receiving a culture based syllabus throughout two semesters. By the end, students will be given a perceptions questionnaire to identify their satisfaction with the whole experiment.

General Experimental Procedures

I understand that I will participate in a research study which will be conducted in my English Oral Expression class throughout these two semesters. I understand that throughout the semesters period I will be taught with a culture based syllabus and I will be asked to do pre and post tests and answer a questionnaire by the researcher.

Confidentiality

I understand that the data I will provide and any data about me that will be collected by the researcher will be held in the strictest confidence. The data will be kept for the duration of the study and they will be destroyed after the completion of the study.

Disclaimer/Withdrawal

I understand that my participation in this study is on voluntary basis, and I may refuse to participate at any time without consequence or prejudice.

Signing my name below indicates that I have read and understood the contents of this Consent Form and that I agree to take part in this study.

Participant's Signature Date

Investigator's Signature Date

Appendix B

**Official Oral Expression Course Program by the Algerian Ministry of
Higher Education and Scientific Research (CANEVAS)**

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية
وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي

برنامج البيداغوجي

للتعليم القاعدي المشترك
السنة الأولى و الثانية
ليساس

ميدان

آداب و لغات أجنبية

Semestre : 1^{er} Semestre

UE: Unité Fondamentale 1

Matière 2 : Compréhension et Expression Orale 1

Objectifs de l'enseignement

Réactiver, élargir les connaissances des étudiants et développer les compétences nécessaires pour communiquer avec aisance à l'oral, au quotidien et/ou dans des situations professionnelles.

Connaissances préalables recommandées

Compréhension

- développer chez l'étudiant des facultés d'écoute et d'hierarchisation des contenus
- reconnaître des intonations pour réagir
- construire le sens d'un message oral
- adopter une attitude d'écoute sélective pour repérer une information
- comprendre un vocabulaire fréquent en rapport avec des situations de la vie courante.

Expression

- interagir dans différentes situations de la vie courante.
- prendre part à une discussion
- donner et demander des informations
- prendre part à des échanges brefs.

Contenu de la matière

Types d'activité

Compréhension

- écouter des messages audio
- sélectionner et hierarchiser des informations
- identifier des voix

Expression

- exercices d'élocution
- présenter son point de vue, s'exprimer sur ses sentiments
- réagir à des situations
- répondre à des questions
- résumer, synthétiser, reformuler
- poser des questions pour se renseigner
- débattre à propos de sujets familiers

Contenus

Compréhension

- le rythme
- la pause
- la prosodie
- l'intonation
- les marques de l'énonciation
- le schéma de la communication

Expression

- les actes de parole
- exercice de diction, d'élocution

Mode d'évaluation Continu et examen

Références

- BARIL, D. ANTONIDIS G, *Techniques de l'expression écrite et orale*, Sirey, 2001
- Blanche, P, *A tour de rôle, des activités de communication orale à pratiquer face à face*, Paris, Clé international, 1991
- *Les méthodes de français : Le DELF, Funarbulle, Pour tout dire, Le français dans le monde, Tempo.*

Sites : www.tv5.org/ TV5
www.francaisfacile.com

Semestre: 2ème Semestre

UE: Unité d'Enseignement Fondamentale 1

Matière 2 : Compréhension et Expression Orale 2

Objectifs de l'enseignement

Réactiver, élargir les connaissances des étudiants et développer les compétences nécessaires pour communiquer avec aisance à l'oral, au quotidien et/ou dans des situations professionnelles.

Connaissances préalables recommandées

Compréhension

- Saisir l'essentiel de messages simples et clairs
- parler spontanément (exemple : prendre part à une discussion sans préparation préalable)
- comprendre des expressions
- comprendre l'essentiel de messages audio et vidéo sur des sujets d'actualité.

Expression

- interagir dans des situations de communication sur des sujets d'actualité
- s'exprimer en continu pour exposer et développer brièvement une idée et aborder des sujets d'actualité en utilisant des phrases simples et cohérentes
- prendre part spontanément à une conversation sur des sujets familiers et d'intérêt personnel.

Contenu de la matière

Types d'activité

Compréhension

- écouter des émissions radiophoniques et télévisuelles
- formuler des hypothèses de sens.

Expression

- s'adresser à un auditoire de façon adaptée

Contenus

Compréhension

- les registres de langue
- les expressions idiomatiques

Expression

- annonces
- exposés
- débit
- registre de langue

Mode d'évaluation Continu et examen

Références

- BARIL, D. ANTONIDIS G, *Techniques de l'expression écrite et orale*, Sirey, 2001
- Blanche, P, *A tour de rôle, des activités de communication orale à pratiquer face à face*, Paris, Clé international, 1991
- Les méthodes de français : Le DELF, Funanbule, Pour tout dire, Le français dans le monde, Tempo.

Sites : www.tv5.org/ TV5
www.francaisfacile.com

Semestre: 3^{ème} Semestre

UE: Unité d'Enseignement Fondamentale 1

Matière 2 : Compréhension et Expression Orale 3

Objectifs de l'enseignement

Réactiver, élargir les connaissances des étudiants et développer les compétences nécessaires pour communiquer avec aisance à l'oral, au quotidien et/ou dans des situations professionnelles.

Connaissances préalables recommandées

Compréhension

- comprendre des messages longs et variés
- saisir le contenu d'un échange verbal (thème, principaux arguments, enjeux, ...etc.)

Expression

- produire des messages longs et variés
- produire des échanges verbaux en interaction
- défendre son opinion
- s'exprimer

Contenu de la matière

Types d'activité

Compréhension

- écoute de conférences
- écoute d'allocutions de personnalités politiques, académiques, ...etc.

Expression

- scènes mimées
- l'exposé
- le débat
- Défendre une thèse
- l'entretien
- la table ronde

Contenus

Compréhension

- Saynètes
- sketch
- monologues
- des pièces de théâtre
- discours académiques

Expression

- annonces
- exposés
- débit
- registre de langue

Mode d'évaluation Continu et examen.

Références

- BARIL, D. ANTONIDIS G, *Techniques de l'expression écrite et orale*, Sirey, 2001
 - Blanche, P, *A tour de rôle, des activités de communication orale à pratiquer face à face*, Paris, Clé international, 1991
 - Les méthodes de français : Le DELF, Funanbule, Pour tout dire, Le français dans le monde, Tempo.
- Sites : www.tv5.org/ TV5
www.francaisfacile.com

Semestre: 4^{ème} Semestre

UE: Unité d'Enseignement Fondamentale 1

Matière 1: Compréhension et Expression orale 4

Objectifs de l'enseignement

Réactiver, élargir les connaissances des étudiants et développer les compétences nécessaires pour communiquer avec aisance à l'oral, au quotidien et/ou dans des situations professionnelles.

Connaissances préalables recommandées

Compréhension

- comprendre des messages longs et variés
- saisir le contenu d'un échange verbal (thème, principaux arguments, enjeux, ...etc.)

Expression

- produire des messages longs et variés
- produire des échanges verbaux en interaction
- défendre son opinion
- s'exprimer

Contenu de la matière

Types d'activité

Compréhension

- écoute de conférences
- écoute d'allocutions de personnalités politiques, académiques, ...etc.

Expression

- scènes mimées
- l'exposé
- le débat
- Défendre une thèse
- l'entretien
- la table ronde

Contenus

Compréhension

- Saynètes
- sketch
- monologues
- des pièces de théâtre
- discours académiques

Expression

- annonces
- exposés
- débit
- registre de langue

Mode d'évaluation Continu et examen

Références - BARIL, D. ANTONIDIS G, *Techniques de l'expression écrite et orale*, Sirey, 2001

- Blanche, P, *A tour de rôle, des activités de communication orale à pratiquer face à face*, Paris, Clé international, 1991

- Les méthodes de français : Le DELF, Funanbulle, Pour tout dire, Le français dans le monde, Tempo.

Sites : www.tv5.org/ TV5

www.francaisfacile.com

Appendix C

Informal Discussion procedure with teachers

Introduction

Good morning teachers how are you? Thank you for joining today, I really appreciate. Well, since you have experience of teaching oral expression at Sétif 2 university, I'm going to ask you four 04 main questions. Basically, I'm going to see your perceptions of the relationship between cultural knowledge and students' listening comprehension abilities. Please feel free to speak as there are no right or wrong answers.

Discussion Questions

1. Do your students have difficulties in the listening comprehension skill? If yes, Why?
2. Do you teach cultural content inside the classroom ?
3. What do you think of the students' cultural knowledge?
4. Do you see that the students' level of cultural knowledge of the language can affect their listening comprehension tasks?
5. What do you think of integrating a culturally oriented syllabus in OE course?

Thank you!

Appendix D

Focus Group Discussion procedure with students

Introduction

Hello students, this is teacher Keraghel Lyna. I'm a PhD candidate at Batna-2 university and I'm conducting my research here at Setif-2 university. You are going to participate in my research by answering few questions. Your contribution is highly appreciated. Your names are to be held anonymous and your opinions are strictly confidential and used for research purposes only.

Discussion Questions

1. How do you rate your level in listening comprehension?
2. Do you think listening comprehension difficult? Why?
3. Do you think you have cultural knowledge of the English language?
4. Does your oral expression teacher provide you with the necessary cultural content?
5. Do you believe that if you have cultural background knowledge of the English language, you will find it easy to understand the listening passage?
6. What do you think of integrating a culturally oriented syllabus in OE course to improve listening?

Thank you!

Appendix E

Placement Test

New Opportunities Placement Test 3A

Choose the best option and mark A, B, C or D as in the example 0.

- 0 A horse has got legs.
A for B fore C fort D four
- 1 I 50 years old in 2030.
A is B am C will be D am being
- 2 There aren't students in the class today.
A much B some C many D none
- 3 Excuse me? Can I buy green apples please?
A a few B less C a bit D a little
- 4 Sorry, we have green apples.
A no B none C any D nothing
- 5 Sorry, I here on Thursday. I have to go to the dentist.
A is B 'm C 'll be D won't be
- 6 my brothers live in the U.S.A.
A Neither B Both C Any D None
- 7 When it rains we inside.
A go B went C are going D goes
- 8 What you do if there is a blackout?
A shall B will C are D have
- 9 If you throw a stone into the water, it
A sinks B sank C sunk D is sinking
- 10 Who you talk to when you have a problem?
A did B do C does D will do
- 11 I to your flat if you don't want me to come.
A 'll come B 'm coming C won't come D don't come
- 12 If she recharge her battery, she won't be able to use her phone.
A doesn't B isn't C hasn't D wasn't
- 13 If I didn't like cooking, I be a chef.
A won't B haven't C didn't D wouldn't
- 14 Would you go into space if you the chance?
A have B had C has D will have
- 15 If I lost my handbag, I the police.
A phone B 'm phone C 'll phone D 'd phone
- 16 Who the washing-up in your house?
A makes B does C has D gets
- 17 How are you? I haven't seen you a long time?
A since B after C before D for
- 18 I haven't eaten any meat I became a vegetarian.
A since B after C until D before
- 19 I her since she went to Germany.
A haven't seen B didn't see C wasn't seen D won't see
- 20 He in this house until he died in 1998.
A lives B has lived C lived D living
- 21 We French by Mr Dubois, the French teacher.
A teach B were taught C learnt D taught
- 22 The race by Paul Lucas in 92.8 seconds.
A was won B has won C is won D had won
- 23 How have you had this boat?
A much B far C long D time
- 24 What time did you go to bed when you were ten years old?
A must B should C have to D ought to
- 25 I'll come and see you after I my essay.
A finished B will finish C have finished D did finishes
- 26 Don't start making the pasta until I you.
A will phone B 'm phoning C phoned D phone
- 27 Paul McCartney comes from Liverpool, he?
A isn't B doesn't C hasn't D didn't
- 28 This is the painting was stolen in 2004.
A what B who C where D which
- 29 The teacher told me worry about my exam results.
A not to B not C don't D don't to
- 30 The teacher told me
A to relax B relaxing C relax D relaxed
- 31 anything about astronomy?
A Do you know B Are you know C Have you know D Do you knowing
- 32 Napoleon Bonaparte in Corsica.
A was born B is born C born D to be born
- 33 I Portuguese because I lived in Brazil for ten years.
A understand B 'm understanding C to understand D 'll understand
- 34 She can't run in the race because she her leg.
A broke B has broken C breaks D is breaking
- 35 They arrived after the party
A finished B had finished C was finished D finish
- 36 John a brown jacket when I saw him.
A wore B was wearing C has worn D wears
- 37 William Shakespeare in this house when he was a child.
A had lived B used to live C would live D lives
- 38 The film was awful and we were very
A bored B boring C bore D boredom
- 39 Are you three boys in the back of the car?
A comfort B comfortable C comforted D comforting
- 40 Have you finished your assignment?
A complete B completed C full D completely

- 41 I couldn't take any pictures because I.... my camera at home.
A 'd left B 'm leaving C to leave D 've left
- 42 When I got home I saw that my brother all the chocolates! The box was empty!
A had eaten B has eaten C ate D eats
- 43 In the evenings, we used to sit around the piano and our mother our favourite songs.
A played B would play C plays D will play
- 44 I.... David Copperfield for two weeks but I haven't finished it yet.
A 've read B 've been reading C read D 'm reading
- 45 You look very tired. you been working too hard?
A Did B Was C Have D Are
- 46 'I'd like to introduce My name is Dahlia Ross.'
A myself B yourself C me D ourselves
- 47 They love very much and they are going to get married.
A others B themselves C ourselves D each other
- 48 She hurt when she was gardening.
A herself B itself C himself D myself
- 49 I of ghosts.
A frighten B am frightened C am frightening D frightened
- 50 All the children presents by Father Christmas.
A give B were giving C gave D were given
- 51 The thief by a security camera.
A was watching B was be watched C was been watched D was being watched
- 52 She went to the salon
A to make her hair cut B to be her hair cut C to do her hair cut D to get her hair cut
- 53 The grass in front of his house for two months!
A hasn't cut B hasn't been cut C didn't cut D not cut
- 54 We.... to Italy for our holidays next June. I've already booked a hotel in Florence.
A 'll go B 're going C go D went
- 55 In fifty years from now, the earth much warmer.
A is B be C will be D is being
- 56 Iguacu is the largest waterfall in South America.
A the B — C a D any
- 57 He is officer in the army.
A the B — C a D an
- 58 United Kingdom consists of four countries; Scotland, Northern Ireland, Wales and England.
A The B — C a D An
- 59 Is your hair or straight?
A curls B curled C curly D curling
- 60 She's very young to be Prime Minister. She's only in her thirties.
A later B late C lately D latest
- 61 Look at that girl in her Ferrari. She be very rich!
A should B can C must D may
- 62 Don't forget to take an umbrella. It rain!
A must B can C ought D may
- 63 That Brad Pitt — not in this small town!
A mustn't be B mightn't be C can't be D shouldn't be
- 64 George hates everything. He must be very
A cheerful B comfortable C miserable D positive
- 65 It was a warm day when they returned, so they switch on the heating.
A had to B weren't able to C can't D didn't have to
- 66 She ride a bicycle until she was twelve years old.
A can't B couldn't C hadn't D isn't
- 67 If I hadn't got married when I was eighteen, I.... to university to study agriculture.
A 'd go B 'd have gone C 'll go D was going
- 68 She a great ballet dancer if she hadn't grown so tall.
A will have been B will be C had to be D would have been
- 69 She wouldn't have become a millionaire business woman if she hard at school.
A hadn't worked B had worked C didn't work D worked
- 70 She told me that she her car when she was driving to work.
A was crashing B had been crashing C had to crash D had crashed
- 71 Mrs Fielding said she help me with singing.
A would B need C ought D is able
- 72 The doctor asked me what I when I broke my leg.
A doing B had been doing C have been doing D 'm going to do
- 73 At the job interview, they asked me where I for the last two years.
A work B 'll work C had been working D 'm working
- 74 How long in Austria? — Almost two years, now.
A are you living B have you been living C will you be living D did you live
- 75 They wanted to know how tall I so they measured me.
A have B have been C had D was
- 76 Don't stop you have finished the test!
A first B since C until D to
- 77 she is only 13, she is an expert violinist and has played with orchestras on TV!
A Because B Although C Despite D Even
- 78 I wish I understand Spanish!
A could B can't C able D can
- 79 I feel so sleepy! I such a big lunch!
A mustn't have eaten B shouldn't have eaten C wouldn't have eaten D couldn't have eaten
- 80 I'd make you some coffee but I forgot some coffee beans.
A to buy B bought C buying D buy

[Total 80 marks]

Answer Key

Test 3A			
1 C	21 B	41 A	61 C
2 C	22 A	42 A	62 D
3 A	23 C	43 B	63 C
4 A	24 C	44 B	64 C
5 D	25 C	45 C	65 D
6 B	26 D	46 A	66 B
7 A	27 B	47 D	67 B
8 B	28 D	48 A	68 D
9 A	29 A	49 B	69 A
10 B	30 A	50 D	70 D
11 C	31 A	51 D	71 A
12 A	32 A	52 D	72 B
13 D	33 A	53 B	73 C
14 B	34 B	54 B	74 B
15 D	35 B	55 C	75 D
16 B	36 B	56 B	76 C
17 D	37 B	57 D	77 B
18 A	38 A	58 A	78 A
19 A	39 B	59 C	79 B
20 C	40 D	60 B	80 A

Score ___/80

Appendix F

The Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS)

The Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS)

Read each statement and select the response that best describes your capabilities.
Select the answer that BEST describes you. AS YOU REALLY ARE (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree)

CQ Factor	Questionnaire Items
Metacognitive CQ:	
MC1	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.
MC2	I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
MC3	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.
MC4	I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.
Cognitive CQ:	
COG1	I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.
COG2	I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.
COG3	I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.
COG4	I know the marriage systems of other cultures.
COG5	I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.
COG6	I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviors in other cultures.
Motivational CQ:	
MOT1	I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.
MOT2	I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
MOT3	I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.
MOT4	I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.
MOT5	I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.
Behavioral CQ:	
BEH1	I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.
BEH2	I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.
BEH3	I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
BEH4	I change my non-verbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
BEH5	I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.

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Note: Use of this scale granted to academic researchers for research purposes only.
For information on using the scale for purposes other than academic research (e.g., consultants and non-academic organizations), please send an email to cquerry@culturaliq.com

Appendix G

Listening IELTS Pre-Test

Test 1

LISTENING

SECTION 1 Questions 1–10

Questions 1 and 2

Choose the correct letter, **A**, **B** or **C**.

Example

In the library George found

- A** a book.
- B** a brochure.
- C** a newspaper.

- 1 In the lobby of the library George saw
 - A** a group playing music.
 - B** a display of instruments.
 - C** a video about the festival.
- 2 George wants to sit at the back so they can
 - A** see well.
 - B** hear clearly.
 - C** pay less.

Questions 3–10

Complete the form below.

Write **NO MORE THAN TWO WORDS AND/OR A NUMBER** for each answer.

SUMMER MUSIC FESTIVAL BOOKING FORM			
NAME:		George O'Neill	
ADDRESS:		3, Westsea	
POSTCODE:		4	
TELEPHONE:		5	
Date	Event	Price per ticket	No. of tickets
5 June	Instrumental group – <i>Guitarrini</i>	£7.50	2
17 June	Singer (price includes 6 in the garden)	£6	2
22 June	7 (Anna Ventura)	£7.00	1
23 June	Spanish Dance & Guitar Concert	8 £	9
NB Children / Students / Senior Citizens have 10 discount on all tickets.			

SECTION 2 Questions 11–20

Questions 11–15

Complete the sentences below.

Write **NO MORE THAN TWO WORDS AND/OR A NUMBER** for each answer.

The Dinosaur Museum

- 11 The museum closes at p.m. on Mondays.
- 12 The museum is not open on
- 13 School groups are met by tour guides in the
- 14 The whole visit takes 90 minutes, including minutes for the guided tour.
- 15 There are behind the museum where students can have lunch.

Questions 16–18

Choose **THREE** letters, **A–G**.

Which **THREE** things can students have with them in the museum?

- A food
- B water
- C cameras
- D books
- E bags
- F pens
- G worksheets

Listening

Questions 19 and 20

Choose **TWO** letters, **A–E**.

Which **TWO** activities can students do after the tour at present?

- A build model dinosaurs
- B watch films
- C draw dinosaurs
- D find dinosaur eggs
- E play computer games

Appendix H

Listening IELTS Post-Test

Test 2

LISTENING

SECTION 1 *Questions 1–10*

Questions 1–3

Complete the form below.

Write NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS AND/OR A NUMBER for each answer.

TOTAL INSURANCE INCIDENT REPORT	
<i>Example</i> Name	<i>Answer</i> <u>Michael Alexander</u>
Address	24 Manly Street, 1 , Sydney
Shipping agent	2
Place of origin	China
Date of arrival	3
Reference number	601 ACK

Test 2

Questions 4–10

Complete the table below.

Write **ONE WORD AND/OR A NUMBER** for each answer.

Item	Damage	Cost to repair/ replace
Television	The 4 needs to be replaced	not known
The 5 cabinet	The 6 of the cabinet is damaged	7 \$
Dining room table	A 8 is split	\$200
Set of china	Six 9 were broken	about 10 \$ in total

SECTION 2 Questions 11–20

Question 11

Choose the correct letter, **A**, **B** or **C**.

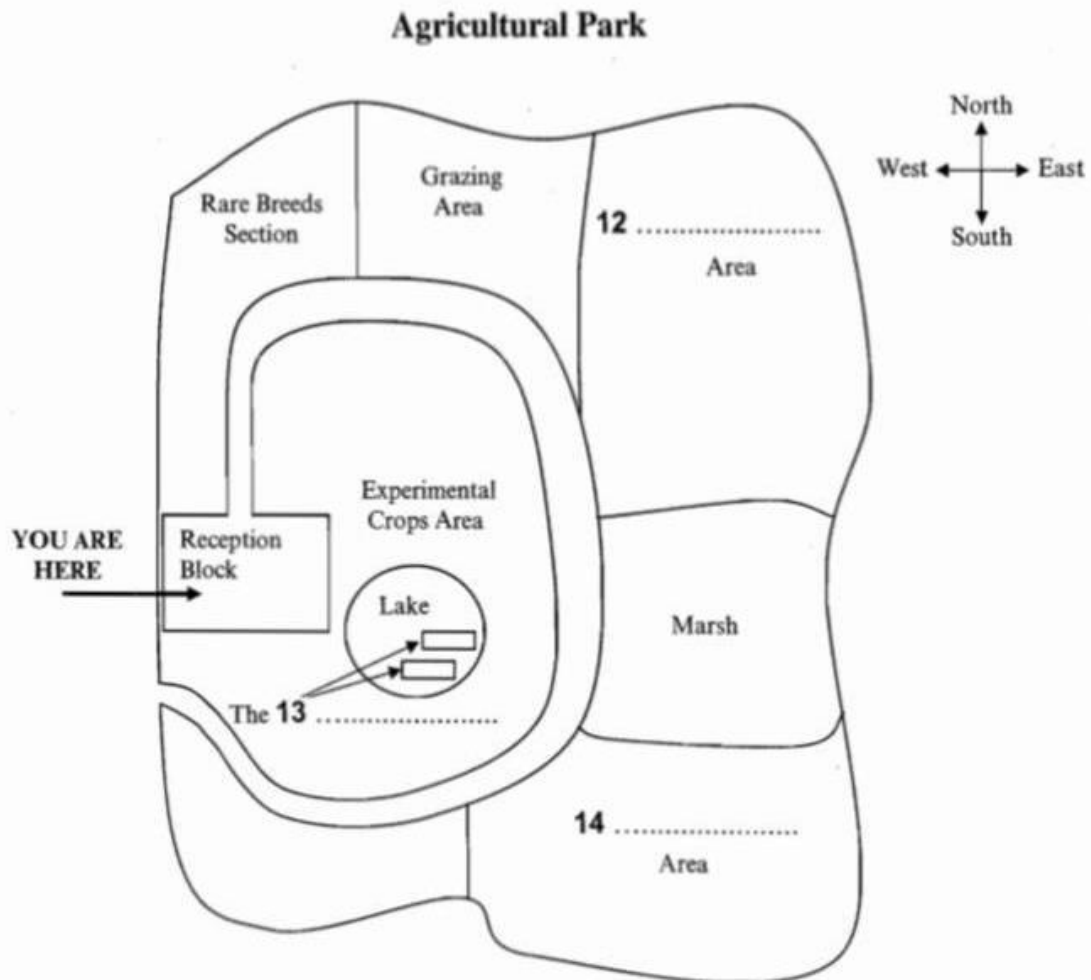
11 According to the speaker, the main purposes of the park are

- A** education and entertainment.
- B** research and education.
- C** research and entertainment.

Questions 12–14

Label the plan below.

Write **NO MORE THAN TWO WORDS** for each answer.



Appendix I

Lesson Plan Sample

Lesson plan example

Requests

The fifth lesson in the treatment designed is how to make requests. According to Ellis (1994) requests are directive acts and “attempts on the part of a speaker to get the hearer to perform or to stop performing some kind of action” (p.167). As for Brown and Levinson's (1978 and 1987) politeness theory, requests are face threatening acts (FTAs) because "the speaker impinges on the hearer's claims to freedom of action and freedom from imposition" (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain 1984: 201). So, people tend to vary their ways of making requests to minimize this threat. Even though the realization of requests is set to be universal, recent research shows that it is culturally different. Brown and Levinson (1978 and 1987), Leech (1983), and Searle (1975) proposed that the more indirect the request is, the more polite it is. However, the notion of politeness is culturally relative. To illustrate, a polite behavior in a specific culture may not be the case in another culture. For instance, Imperatives are considered as impolite requests in English but polite in Arabic (Al-Marrani and Sazalie 2010).

In the American culture, requests tend to be placed at the very beginning in a direct communication style. By this, Americans tend to give the other person freedom and some sort of independence. Yet, on some occasions, they can they can make indirect requests with face work, supportive moves and/or justification or reason if needed. But, the Americans prefer direct requests on most occasions. Therefore, this lesson will tackle the requests used in the target language culture (American and British) with reference to the students' local culture (Algerian/Arabic).

Course: Oral Expression (F412)

Level : second year

Topic: Requests

Time: 90

Objectives:

By the end of this lesson, students will be able to know how to make request in English with respect to the American and British culture conventions. Students will also be able to compare the target and their local culture in terms of making requests.

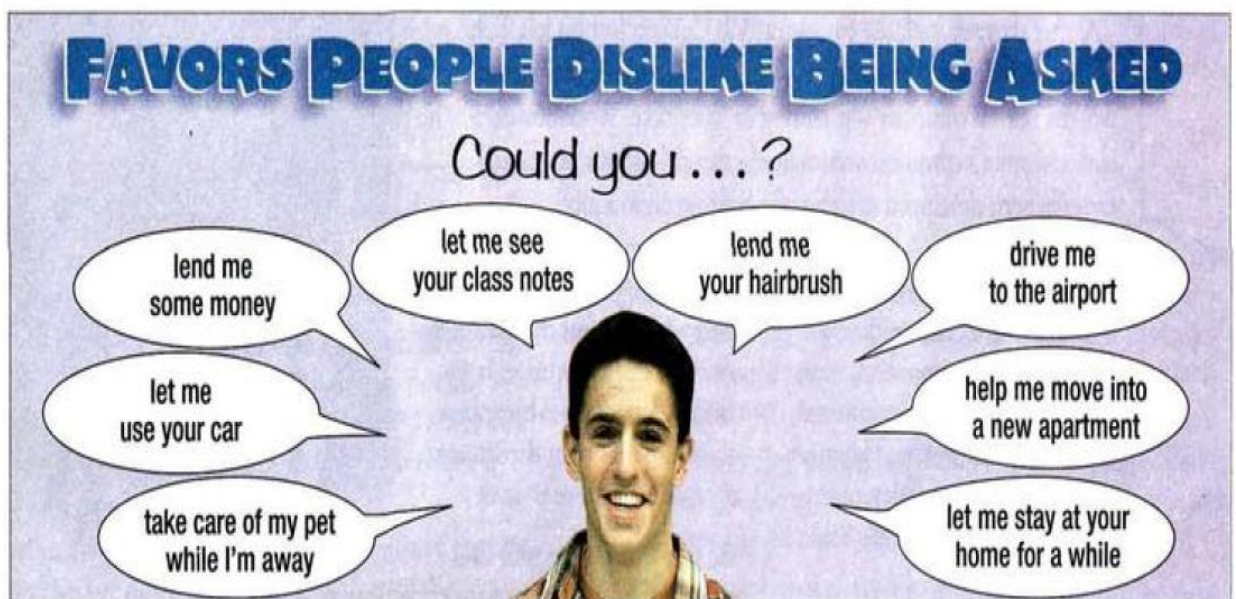
Materials used: Lab computer, pictures, worksheet, audios, headphones

Lesson Plan

Warm-up:

Materials: worksheet **Technique used:** Culture Capsule

Brain storming: the teacher gives (writes on the board) students some situations (favors) where they imagine what would they say in their culture (local language).



After a small discussion about the different ways the Algerian in specific and Arabic culture ask someone to do him/her a favor, the teacher asks students again what do they say in the American and British culture (to see their background knowledge of the vocabulary used, the situations appropriate and the right language in each situation)

Presentation:

Listening activity **Technique used:** Culture Capsule

- Students listen to a conversation in American English of two people talking to each other (Jack asks Rod his friend a favor)
- The teacher asks for the general idea of the conversation
- Ask for expressions used then they listen to more conversation and do the same task
- The teachers provides a list of requests from less formal to more formal and explains when to be used appropriately (setting , the favor , speaker/listener relationship, how to reply on a request)

Practice

Pair work , **Technique use:** Role Play

- make requests using cues provided
- Students work in pairs where they prepare a short conversation in which they ask someone for a favor
- Students have to use the expression they learned
- Students present in role play
- A discussion is held at the end of the class

Evaluation

Class presentation (pair /group work) (the comparison method +culture assimilators)

- Students get to search for more cultural differences in requests made in the British and American culture. They are asked to highlight the possible misunderstandings and their possible solution with reference to their local culture students can provide examples using role –plays.

References

Richards, J. C. (2005). New Interchange 3. Cambridge University Press.

Appendix J

Participants' satisfaction questionnaire

Dear participants,

I highly value your contribution in this experiment. This questionnaire is made to measure your satisfaction with the whole experiment. Your names will be held anonymous and your responses are to be strictly confidential and used for research purposes only.

Read the following statements carefully and tick the best answer that suits you

To which extent do you agree with the following:

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I gained more cultural awareness at the end of the experiment.					
2. The cultural content I gained during the experiment helps me understand the listening tasks.					
3. I find it easy now to understand the listening materials in the IELTS listening test.					
4. I perform better when I have cultural knowledge on listening tasks than ever.					
5. I am satisfied with being taught with a culture based syllabus					

Resumé

Le concept de culture- langue a conduit à de nombreux débats sur son rôle dans les compétences d'apprentissage de l'anglais, en particulier les compétences de compréhension orale dans différents pays non natifs. La recherche actuelle vise à examiner l'impact de la connaissance du contexte culturel sur la compréhension orale. L'étude de cas sélectionnée à l'aide d'un échantillonnage non probabiliste concerne des étudiants de deuxième année d'anglais langue étrangère (EFL) à l'Université de Sétif-2. Un échantillon de 41 est divisé en deux groupes, un groupe expérimental (20) et un groupe témoin (21). Adoptant un plan quasi expérimental, le groupe expérimental est enseigné à l'aide d'un programme orienté culturel pendant deux semestres, tandis que le groupe témoin n'a reçu aucun traitement. Pour observer le niveau de culture acquis et l'efficacité du traitement reçu sur la compréhension orale, les participants des deux groupes sont attribués au questionnaire sur l'échelle de l'intelligence culturelle et aux tests d'écoute (IELTS) sous forme de pré-tests. Les données obtenues sont analysées via les SPSS. Les résultats révèlent que l'effet de l'expérience est considérablement marqué ($\eta^2 = 0,73$). En comparant les résultats du test de niveau culturel, le niveau du groupe expérimental est plus élevé après le traitement (moyenne du rang positif 12,47). De plus, les participants du groupe expérimental ont obtenu des résultats plus élevés au post-test IELTS. La valeur moyenne est statistiquement significative dans les groupes EG eux-mêmes (différence moyenne = 22) et entre le CG (moyenne = 27,40) et EG (moyenne = 35,14). À la fin, les participants étaient satisfaits de l'intégration du contenu culturel et de son impact positif sur la réalisation de la compréhension orale. Sur la base de ces résultats, l'intégration d'un programme à base culturelle est recommandée dans l'enseignement de la compréhension orale dans les salles d'enseignement d'anglais comme langue étrangère.

Mots Clés : Apprenants d'anglais comme langue étrangère (EFL), connaissances culturelles, compréhension orale.

المخلص

أدت العلاقة بين الثقافة واللغة إلى العديد من المناقشات حول دورها في إتقان و تعلم مهارات اللغة الإنجليزية ، وخاصة مهارات فهم الاستماع في مختلف البلدان الغير الناطقين بها. يهدف البحث الحالي إلى دراسة تأثير المعرفة الخلفية الثقافية على الفهم السمعي. دراسة الحالة التي تم اختيارها باستخدام أخذ العينات غير الاحتمالية هي طلاب السنة الثانية من اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في جامعة سطيف -2. العينة تتكون من 41 طالب مقسمة إلى مجموعتين، مجموعة تجريبية (20) ومجموعة ضابطة (21). بالاعتماد على تصميم شبه تجريبي، تم تدريس المجموعة التجريبية باستخدام منهج ذي توجه ثقافي لمدة فصلين بينما لم تتلق المجموعة الضابطة أي علاج. لمراقبة مستوى الثقافة المكتسبة وفعالية العلاج الذي تم تلقيه على فهم الاستماع، تم تقديم استبيان مقياس الذكاء الثقافي و اختبار الاستماع الأيلتس (IELTS) للمشاركين من كلا المجموعتين في شكل اختبارات قبيلة و بعدية. تم تحليل البيانات المتحصل عليها باستعمال (SPSS). كشفت النتائج أن تأثير التجربة ملحوظ بشكل ملحوظ ($ETA = 0.73$). نستنتج من خلال مقارنة نتائج اختبار المستوى الثقافي أن مستوى المجموعة التجريبية أعلى بعد العلاج حيث بلغ متوسط الرتبة الإيجابية (12.47). كما تحصل المشاركون من المجموعة التجريبية على درجات أعلى في الاختبار البعدي (IELTS) حيث كانت القيمة المتوسطة للمجموعة التجريبية ذات دلالة إحصائية بمتوسط فرق 22 بين المجموعة التجريبية و بين المجموعة الضابطة (متوسط 27.47) و المجموعة التجريبية (متوسط 35.14). في نهاية التجربة، كان المشتركون راضين عن دمج المحتوى الثقافي و تأثيره الإيجابي على أداء الاستيعاب السمعي. و لذلك و بناء على هذه النتائج، يوصى بإدماج منهج قائم على محتوى ثقافي لتدريس مهارة الفهم السمعي.

الكلمات المفتاحية: متعلمو اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية ، الفهم السمعي ، المعرفة الثقافية .