A. Reviews on listening

1. Definition of listening

There are many definitions of listening. First, listening is the most fundamental language skill and plays an important role in our daily communication. Listening is an active, purposeful processing of making sense of what we hear (Helgsen, 2003). Rost (2002:279) states that listening is a mental process of constructing meaning from spoken input. She also adds that listening is vital in the language classroom because it provides input for the learner. Without understanding input at the right level, any learning simply cannot begin. Listening is thus fundamental to speaking.

Listening is a “receptive skill” where people obtain the main idea according to what they hear. Helgse (cited by Gonzales Moncada, 2003) supports that listening helps learner to be “flexible listeners”, to know how to listen in order to get the general idea or the specific information needed to understand videos. Similarly, Richard & Rubin (cited by Van Duzer, 1997) argue that “although listening is a passive skill it is very much an active process of selecting and interpreting information from auditory and visual clues”.

Listening is conceived of as an active process in which listeners select and interpret information which come auditory and visual clues. In order to define what is going on and what the speakers are trying to express. Active means listeners get information (from visual and auditory clues) and relate this information to what they know Rubin (1995:7). Select means that in the process
of making sense of the input, listeners use only part of the incoming information. Interpret means that in trying to make sense of the input, the listener uses their background knowledge as well as the new information of what is going on and to figure out what speakers intend.

Listening as a basic input material is very important for the students in learning English. It is highly complex processes that draw on knowledge of the linguistic code (language form) and cognitive processing skill (the skill process in the mind).

2. **Listening Process**

Listening is not a simple process. Listeners pass through several stages to comprehend the meaning of spoken text. Petty and Jensen (1981: 181) propose three steps of listening process as follows.

a. **Hearing**: the listeners hear a series of sounds, the actual words and sentences.

b. **Understanding**: the listeners understand the meanings of these words and sentences in the context in which they have heard them.

c. **Evaluate**: the listeners evaluate the meanings and accept or reject the total communication.

d. **Responding**: The listeners respond to what they have heard.

In line with Petty and Jensen, Buck (2001: 274) states that listening is a complex process in which the listener takes the incoming data, an acoustics signal, and interprets it based on a wide variety of linguistics and non-linguistics knowledge. In this case, the linguistics knowledge includes phonology, lexis, syntax, semantic, and discourse structure. The non-linguistics knowledge includes
knowledge of the topic, context and general knowledge about the world and how it works. Buck (2001: 274) also adds that comprehension is an on-going process of constructing an interpretation of what the text is about, and then continually modifying that as new information becomes available.

Based on the explanation above, it is obvious that listening and hearing are not identical and should be thought of as two distinguishable phases. Hearing requires perceiving sounds and discriminating among them while listening is a process of becoming aware of the sound components and recognizing them in sequences that have meaning. Besides, listening is also a complex process in which the listener takes the incoming data, an acoustics signal, and interprets it based on a wide variety of linguistics (such as of phonology, lexis, syntax, semantic, and discourse structure) and non linguistics knowledge (such as knowledge of the topic, context and general knowledge about the world and how it works). Thus in listening, the listener actively make an interpretation on what they hear, draw on all existing information resources, including knowledge of the world, and possibly give response to what has been heard.

3. The Interactive Model of Listening skill

The following eight processes (adapted from Clark and Clark, 1977 and Richard, 1983) are involved in comprehension.

a. The hearer processes what we will call “raw speech” and holds an “image” of it in short term memory. This image consists of constituents (phrase, clauses, cohesive markers, and intonation and stress patterns) of a stream of speech.
b. The hearer determines the types of speech event that is being processed. The hearer must, for example, ascertain whether this is a conversation, a speech, a radio broadcast, etc., and, then appropriately “color” the interpretation of the perceived message.

c. The hearer infers the objectives of the speaker through consideration of the type of the speech event, the context, and content. So, for example, one infers whether the speaker wishes to persuade, to request, to exchange pleasantries, to affirm, to deny, informing, and so forth. Thus the function of message is inferred.

d. The hearer recalls background information (or schemata) relevant to the particular context and subject matter. A lifetime of experiences and knowledge are used to perform cognitive associations in order to bring plausible interpretation to the message.

e. The hearer assigns a literal meaning to the utterance. This process involves a set of semantic interpretations of the surface strings that the ear has perceived.

f. The hearer assigns an intended meaning to the utterance. A key to the human communication is the ability to match between perceived meanings with intended meaning. This match-making, of course, can extend well beyond simple metaphorical and idiomatic language. It can apply to short and long stretches of discourse and its breakdown can be used by careless speech, inattention of the hearer, conceptual complexity, contextual miscues, psychological barriers and host of other performance variables.
g. The hearer determines whether information should be retained in short term or long term memory. Short-term memory- a matter of a few seconds- is appropriate, for example, in context that simply call for a quick oral response from the hearer. Long-term memory is more common when, say, you are processing information in the lecture. There are, of course, many points in between.

h. The hearer deletes the form in which the message was originally received. The words, phrase and sentences themselves are quickly forgotten-“pruned”- in 99 percent of speech act.

Based on the explanation above, listening is not merely a one way process of receiving of the incoming data, an acoustic signal. In this case, listening comprehension is an interactive process. The interactive process of listening are processing “raw speech” and holding an “image” in short term memory, determining the types of speech event that is being processed, inferring the objectives of the speaker, recalling relevant background information (or schemata) in order to bring a plausible interpretation to the message, assigning a literal meaning and an intended meaning to the utterance, determining whether information should be retained in short-term or long term memory, and at last, deleting the form in which the message was originally received. The words, phrase and sentences themselves are quickly forgotten-“pruned”- in 99 percent of speech act. In short, after the initial reception of sound, listeners perform at least seven other major operations on that set of sound waves.

4. Type of listening activity
In creating a successful listening, it is very important to expose a variety of listening activities to the students. Brown (1994: 242-244) describes listening activities as follows.

a. Reactive: It requires little meaningful processing. The role of listener as merely a “tape recorder” must be very limited. The only role that reactive listening can play in an interactive classroom is individual drills that focus on pronunciation.

b. Intensive: It focuses on components (phonemes, words, intonation, discourse markers, etc.) in its requirement that students single out certain elements of spoken language. It includes the bottom-up skills that are important at all levels of proficiency.

c. Responsive: A significant proportion of classroom listening activity consists of short stretches of teacher language designed to elicit immediate responses.

d. Selective: Its purpose is not to look for the global or general meanings, necessarily, but to be able to find important information in a field of potentially distracting information.

e. Extensive: Its purpose is to develop a top-down, global understanding of spoken language.

f. Interactive: This listening activity can include all five of the above types as learners actively participate in discussions, role-plays, and other pair and group work. It must be integrated with speaking (and perhaps other) skills in the authentic give and take of communicative interchange.
While Galvin in Rost (1994: 121) identifies four categories of listening, with typical corresponding purposes as follows:

a. Transactional listening: listening to learn new information. According to Buck (2001: 73), transactional listening is message oriented. It focuses on content and conveys factual or propositional information. It is used for giving instruction, explaining, describing, giving directions, ordering, checking on correctness of details, and verifying understanding.

b. Interactional listening: listening to recognize personal component of message. Interactional listening is person oriented more than message oriented. According to Buck (2001: 13), the primary purpose of transactional listening is social relationship. The important features of interactional language are those of identifying with other persons concerns, being nice to the other person, maintaining social, relationship, etc. It includes greeting, comment about the weather, what is happening in the world and etc.

c. Critical listening: listening for evaluating, reasoning and evidence. In critical listening, listeners learn about expected types of responds and do not become passive listeners.

d. Recreational listening: listening to appreciate random or integrated aspects or events.

Based on the explanation above, it can be inferred that listeners' understanding of a passage depends very much on their purpose of listening. Rost (1990: 11) states that the purpose of listening helps the listener to select appropriate strategies for seeking specific clarification, for noting down certain
details, for scanning for the intent of the speaker and etc. In other words, the students need to select an appropriate role, and purpose to guide them as they listen.

Moreover, Rost (2001:75) states that in most listening situations, there are both transactional and interactional language use, although one will usually be more dominant in any particular situation. In this case, teachers need to provide listening practices in both transactional talk and interpersonal talk. Students need instruction and listening practices to help them recognize both transactional talk and interpersonal talk and how they can respond appropriately.

5. The Factors that Make Listening Difficult

There are some complex factors influencing the students’ ability in understanding listening materials. Brown (1994: 238-241) proposes eight characteristics of spoken language that make listening difficult as follows.

a. **Clustering**, in written language we are conditioned to attend the sentence as the basic unit organization. In spoken language, due to the memory limitations and our predisposition for “Chunking” or clustering, we break down speech into smaller groups of word.

b. **Redundancy**, spoken language unlike written language, has a good deal of redundancy. The next time we are in conversation, notice the rephrasing, repetitions, elaborations, and little insertion of “I mean” and “You mean”, here and there. Such redundancy helps the hearer to process meaning by offering more time and extra information. However, if there is a little redundancy (such as in planned monologues), there is just little extra time
and information helping the hearer to process meaning. In this case, listening comprehension becomes difficult.

c. **Reduced form**, while spoken language does indeed contain a good deal of redundancy, it also has many reduced forms. The reduction can be phonological, morphological, syntactic and pragmatic. These reductions pose significant difficulties especially to classroom learners.

d. **Performance variables**, in spoken language, except for plan discourse, hesitations, false starts, pauses, and correction are common. Learners have to train themselves to listen for meaning in the midst of all these distracting performance variables.

e. **Colloquial language**, learners who have been exposed to standard written English an / or „text book” language sometimes find it surprising and difficult to deal with colloquial language. Idioms, slang, reduced forms, shared cultural knowledge, are all manifested at some point of conversation.

f. **Rate of delivery**, virtually every language learner initially thinks that native speaker speaks too fast. Actually as Richard (1983) points out, the number of length pauses used by a speaker is more crucial to comprehension than sheer speed.

g. **Stress, rhythm, and intonation**, the prosodic features of English language are very important for comprehension. As a stressed time language, English speech can be a terror for some learners as mouthfuls of syllables come spilling out between stress points.
h. **Interaction**, unless a language learner’s objectives is exclusively to master some specialized skill like monitoring radio broadcast or attending lectures, interaction will play a large role in listening comprehension. Students need to understand that good listeners (in conversation) are good responders. They know how to negotiate meaning, that is, to give feedback, to ask for clarification, to maintain a topic, so that the process of comprehending can complete rather than being aborted by insufficient interaction.

In this situation, listeners need certain strategy in order to comprehend oral listening. Buck (2001: 50) states that listeners use their understanding of the communicative situation – the speakers or the topic under discussion to help them understand what is being said. Therefore, when there is a gap in their linguistic knowledge, second-language listeners will naturally tend to compensate for that by using any other available information- including visual information, general background knowledge or their common sense. In this case, teachers may also use certain teaching media such as video in order to facilitate their students to comprehend oral narrative text. Visual information in video can facilitate students to comprehend the whole story better. Kellerman in Buck (2001: 172) states that in many target-language use situations, the listening text is accompanied by visual information which can have a significant impact on the interpretation. Seeing the situation and participants tends to call up relevant schema. Visual information also provides listeners with focus for their attention as they are listening.

Moreover, Buck (2001: 172) mentions that visual information is more important in interactional language use, where the emphasis is on the relationship
between the participants. Buck also adds that with video it is easy to see who is speaking, the setting of places or situations, gestures. Visual information such as context of the situation, speaker’s actions, emotions, and gestures can help the listener to catch the whole message of the story. At last, this visual information is very important since much of the information communicated sometimes is not explicitly stated.

Based on the explanation above, thus it is logical if teachers use certain teaching medium such as video in order to facilitate their students in listening to oral narrative text. Auditory and visual stimulus in the video can help the students to catch the whole message of spoken narrative text better.

B. Teaching listening

a. The important teaching listening

Listening plays an important role in language learning. According to Rost (1994: 141) there are several reasons that make listening so important in language learning. Those reasons are as follows.

1. Listening is vital in the language classroom because it provides input for the learner. Without understandable input at the right level, any learning simply cannot begin.

2. Spoken language provides a means of interaction for the learner. Since learner must interact to achieve understanding, access to speakers of the language is essential. Moreover, learner’s failure to understand the language they hear is an impetus, not an obstacle, to interaction and learning.
3. Authentic spoken language presents a challenge for the learner to attempt to understand language as it is actually used by native speakers.

4. Listening exercises provide teachers with a means for drawing learner’s attention to new form (vocabulary, grammar, interaction patterns) in the language.

Furthermore, listening is the language modality that is used most frequently. Ellis and Brewster (1992: 56) mention that in early stage of learning English, the pupils may spend much of their time listening to the teacher while playing simple games, singing songs, saying rhymes or listening to simple stories. In line with Ellis and Brewster, Rivers in Celce-Murcia (2001: 70) also mentions that on average, we can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write. In fact, mastering spoken language is very important in communication. Without learning listening, people might not be able to speak, to read and to write.

b. Strategies for developing Listening skill

Listening strategies are techniques or activities that contribute directly to the comprehension and recall of listening input. At this point, Underwood (1997:28) states that part of teacher’s roles is to ensure that the lesson proceeds in an orderly and productive way so that the students feel confident, relaxed and unthreatened by listening task. A good pattern for listening sessions should include the following aspects.
1. The pre-listening stage.
   It is the stage when the context of the listening text is established, the
task(s) is explained and assistance is given/ offered as necessary.

2. The while-listening stage.
   It is the stage when the students listen to the passage (in some instance one
section at a time) and attempt the while-listening activities.

3. A period when students discuss their responses in pairs/ group, and help
each other with the task.

4. A repeat listening (if necessary) for students to continue/ complete the
activity or to check/ or clarify information they may have missed or think
they may have get wrong.

5. Some further discussion (if necessary) between students, or some
assistance from the teacher, leading if necessary to listening again to all or
part(s) of the text.

6. Post-listening production of the “acceptable” answer, either by the teacher
or the class in general.

7. Consideration of the area where students failed to understand or missed
something and discussion of why this happened, playing through the text
again, in whole or in part, if necessary.

8. A post-listening extensions activity (if necessary).

   Besides, listening strategies also can be classified by how the listener
processes the input. These processes are often referred as bottom-up and
top-down processing. Richard (2008: 4-10) describes those processes as
follows.
a. Bottom-up processing

In bottom-up processing, learners utilize their linguistic knowledge to identify linguistic elements in an order from the smallest linguistic unit like phonemes (bottom) to the largest one like complete texts (top). It is absolutely “text based” process where learners rely on the sounds, words and grammar in the message in order to create meaning.

b. Top-down processing

Top-down processing, on the other hand, refers to the use of background knowledge in understanding the meaning of a message. This background knowledge activates a set of expectations that help the listener to interpret what is heard and anticipate what will come next.

In line with Underwood, Richard (2008:10) also states that a typical lesson in current teaching materials involves pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening and contains activities that link bottom-up and top-down listening. In this case, the pre-listening phase prepares students for both top-down and bottom-up processing through activities involving activating prior language, making predictions, and reviewing key vocabulary. The while-listening phase focuses on comprehension through exercises that require selective listening, gist listening, sequencing etc. While, the post-listening phase typically involves a response to comprehension and may require students to give opinions about a topic.

Based on the explanation above, the three phases of listening activity, such as: pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening make students feels confident, relaxed and unthreatened in understanding the content of spoken text. Pre-
listening activities such as activating prior language, making predictions, and reviewing key vocabulary in can help the learners to establish what is already known about the topic, to build necessary background, and to set purposes for listening that can facilitate them to listen well. By having this activities they will feel confident, relaxed and unthreatened in understanding the content of spoken text. Then, the use of tasks in while-listening phase can help students to focus on their listening activities. If the teacher gives well-structured and enough listening tasks, students will be trained and be more confident to understand the content of spoken text. Students also need further listening activities such as review of the whole lesson and discussion related students’ listening difficulties and its solution so that they will have a good understanding about the lesson and will be able to listen the spoken text well.

Moreover, Richard (2008: 6) states that the examples of the kinds of tasks that develop bottom-up listening are as follows.

1. Identify the referents of pronouns in an utterance
2. Recognize the time reference of an utterance
3. Distinguish between positive and negative statements
4. Recognize the order in which words occurred in an utterance
5. Identify sequence markers
6. Identify key words that occurred in a spoken text
7. Identify which modal verbs occurred in a spoken text

Furthermore, Ellis and Brewster (1992: 57) mention about the most important listening strategies in listening a story as follows.
1. Predicting: it is useful to encourage children to predict what they think might come next in a story.

2. Inferring opinion or attitude: An awareness of stress, intonation and body language—such as facial expressions or gesture—will help the children work out if a character is angry, happy, sad and so on. This contributes to understanding the story.

3. Working out from context: Although keywords might be glossed before the story is told, children need to be encouraged to use pictures and their general knowledge about a topic to work out the meaning of unfamiliar words.

4. Recognizing discourse patterns and markers (such as first, then, finally, or: but, then, so) gives important signals about what is coming next in a story.

Based on the explanation above, in order to understand the whole message, listening comprehension, listeners need to activate both bottom up processing skills and top down processing skills. Besides, they also need to be active in processing of interpretation in which listeners match what they hear with what they already know (background knowledge). Listeners are expected to combine their previous experiences with the text they are hearing to comprehend an oral text. If they fail in doing these, they will not understand the text well.

While for teachers, it is very important to design pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening activities that can make students feel confident, relaxed and unthreatened in understanding the content of spoken language. Teachers also need to design further listening activities such as reviewing of the whole lesson and discussing about students’ difficulties in listening in order to
facilitate their students to understand oral narrative text easily. Besides, teachers may use teaching media such as video in order to facilitate their students in teaching listening. By listening to the auditory stimulus and paying attention to the visual stimulus, students will be able to catch the meaning of spoken text better.

c. Teacher’s role during the Listening Lesson

Richards (2006:22) states that effective classroom learning tasks and exercises provide opportunities for students to negotiate the meaning, expand their language resources, notice how language is used, and take part in meaningful interpersonal exchange. The role of the teacher in the language classroom is that of a facilitator, who creates a classroom climate conducive to language learning and provides opportunities for students to use and practice the language and to reflect on language use and language learning. According to Pulverness, Spratt, and Williams (2005: 135), the teacher language used in the classroom must be appropriate for the classroom function and for the level and age of the learners.

Meanwhile, according to Harmer (2008), the roles of a teacher are:

a) Controller : Exemplify teacher-fronted classroom.

b) Organizer : Organize the students to do various activities in the classroom.

c) Assessor : What students expect from their teachers indication of whether or not they are getting their English right

d) Prompter : If students lose the thread of what is going on or they are lost for words, the teacher may nudge them forward in a discreet and supportive way.
e) **Participant** : Traditional picture: Teacher standing back from the activity letting learners get on with it.)

f) **Resource** : The teacher should be helpful and available, but resist the urge to spoon-feed the students so they become over-reliant on us.

g) **Tutor** : Working with individuals or small groups, combining the roles of prompter and resource.

h) **Observer** : Observe what the students do – especially in oral communicative activities – to be able to give them useful feedback.

d. **Teaching Listening in SMP**

Based on *curriculum SMP English language subject by National Education Department 2006*, the goals of teaching English at SMP are to make the learners have ability:

a) To improve communicative competence in written and oral form to reach the functional literacy level,

b) To have awareness that English is important to improve nation competitive ability in global community, and

c) To develop understanding feedback of the learners between language and culture.

According to the Standard Competence listening for Seventh Grade students in the second semester. **7.2 Expressing meanings in simple transactional and interpersonal conversation to interact with the surroundings.** English is as a means of communication. Communication is the act of transferring information from one to another, while to communicate is to understand and to express the information, the mind,
the feeling, and the development of science and technology, and culture by using that language. The communication ability in a whole understanding is discourse ability. Discourse ability is the ability to understand and to produce oral or written texts, which are realized into four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Listening serves the goal of extracting meaning from messages. It means that the students acquire language by listening to and understanding information they hear. In other words, language acquisition is achieved mainly through receiving understandable input.

C. videos in language teaching

a. Definition of Animation videos

One of the most appreciated materials applied to language learning and teaching is video. A recent large-scale survey by Canning-Wilson (2000) reveals that the students like learning language through the use of video, which is often used to mean quite different things in language teaching. The use of video in English classes has grown rapidly as a result of the increasing emphasis on communicative techniques. Being a rich and valuable resource, video is well-liked by both students and teachers (Hemei, 1997:45).

Johnson (1999) additionally states that video as a listening tool can enhance the listening experience for students. A teacher can add a whole new dimension to aural practice in the classroom by using video. The setting, action, emotions, gestures, etc, that students can observe in a video. It also provides the students an important visual stimulus for language production and practice.
Meanwhile there are many definitions of animation. Webster says "a: a motion picture made by photographing successive positions of inanimate objects (as puppets or mechanical parts), b: Animated Cartoon, a motion picture made from a series of drawings simulating motion by means of slight progressive changes." This is a fairly common understanding of the term animation, but it reflects a limited exposure to what the art-form has to offer.

In conclusion, video animation is described as cartoon, films, images, puppets, etc. that are photographed and shown in a way that makes them move and appear to be alive.

b. the advantages and disadvantages of using animation videos

Harmer (2002:282) states the advantages of using video in teaching and learning process are:

a) Seeing language-in-use

One of the main advantages of film is that students do not just hear language, they see it too. This greatly aids comprehension, since for example; general meaning and moods are often conveyed through expression, gesture, and other visual clues. Thus we can observe how intonation can match facial expression. All such paralinguistic feature give valuable meaning clues and help viewers to see beyond what they are listening to, and thus interpret the text more deeply.

b) Cross-cultural awareness

Videos uniquely allow students a look at situations far beyond their classrooms. This is especially useful if they want to see, for example, typical British "body language" when inviting someone out, or how Americans speak to
waiters. Film is also of great value in giving students a chance to see such things as what kinds of food people eat in other countries, and what they wear.

c) The power of creation

When students make their own film as media in teaching and learning process, they are given the potential to create something memorable and enjoyable. The camera operators and directors suddenly have considerable power. The task of film-making can provoke genuinely creative and communicative uses of the language, with students finding them doing new things in English.

d) Motivation

For all of the reasons so far mentioned, most students show an increased level of interest when they have a chance to see language in use as well as hear it, and when this is coupled with interesting task.

In the other hand there are several disadvantages to be recognized when using video in language teaching process. Video deals with the long-term effects of using video in the classroom. It can be argued that video in language teaching should be discouraged because there is scant empirical proof to verify comprehension. The main disadvantages are cost, inconvenience, maintenance and some cases, fear of technology. Additionally, the sound and vision, quality of the copies or home-produced materials may not be ideal. Another important issue in this case is that the teacher should be well-trained on using and exploiting the video. Otherwise, it becomes boring and purposeless for students.

c. The Role of Animation Video
According to Miller (2003) non-verbal behavior or paralinguistic features of the spoken text are now available to the learners (compared with radio), so learners can develop their listening skills in a richer language context. Additionally, according to Beare (2008), videos support students to become more conscious of their learning process. They allow the learner to get an immediate feedback being videos more effective than “simple teacher correction”. Moreover, Esseberger (2000) claims that videos can be used in a diverse way in a language classroom since they are an exceptional medium of learning.

Students like it because video presentations are interesting, challenging, and stimulating to watch. Video shows them how people behave in the culture whose language they are learning by bringing into the classroom a wide range of communicative situations. Another important factor for teachers that makes it more interesting and enjoyable is that it helps to promote comprehension. Video makes meaning clearer by illustrating relationships in a way that is not possible with words, which proves a well-known saying that a picture is worth thousand words. Two minutes of video can provide an hour of classroom work, or it can be used to introduce a range of activity for five minutes. A ten-minute program can be useful for more advanced students. Less advanced students may wish something much shorter because their limited command of the language also limits their attention span. (Dr. Ismail Cakir: 2006)

Furthermore, animation video applied in listening skill, provide real situations, intonation, and real pronunciation and allow students to be exposed to a real context, as Van Duzer (1998) &Martinez (2002) reveal. To complement, Ramal (2006) says that using animation video in an ESL classroom can motivate
students, because they can experience real feelings to accomplish their understanding about the situation of the video.

D. Previous study

The same research concerned using animation video had been conducted by the previous researchers.

The first, the research that had been conducted by Dwi cahya ningrum (2010) entitled —The Effectiveness Of Using Video in Teaching Listening of Oral Narrative Text. The result of research shown that the mean for the posttest scores for the control group was 5.48 and the mean for experimental group was 6.05, with the great difference of 0.57. So, experimental group was bigger than control group. Independent T-test results on posttest scores shown that $t = 1.98$, df= 39, and Sig = 0.000. It could be concluded that there was significant difference in the listening comprehension performance between the participants in the control group and the participants in the experimental group. This indicated that using video had indeed helped to significantly evaluate the students` performance in their listening of oral narrative text.

Another previous study is conducted by Kretsai Woottipong (2014: 210) that found it can be implied that video can contribute positively to language learning and processing. It helps learners in developing listening skills, in learning new lexical terms and in encouraging autonomous learning. Video-based instruction can be used to develop students’ listening and speaking skills. Activities associated with video-based instruction such as gap-filling, group discussion, and oral presentation, can also develop students’ listening and speaking skills.
Based on explanation above, the use of animation video was effective and increased the students’ listening skill