

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Definition of Listening

Listening is a difficult skill in second language learning. The difficulty is caused by many factors varying from the difference of sound between the second language learners' first language and the second language he or she is learning, his or her lack of vocabulary, his or her grammatical unawareness, to pragmatic differences between two languages. Accordingly, learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) need to be prepared to handle tests in listening comprehension (Nasrudin, 2013: 3).

Listening comprehension refers to the understanding of the implications and explicit meanings of words and sentences of spoken language. Listening comprehension is more than just hearing what is said, it is a child's ability to understand the meaning of the words they hear and to relate to them in some way. When children hear a story, for instance, good listening comprehension enables them to understand it, remember it, discuss it, and even retell it in their own words. This is an important skill to learn even at an early age, because good listeners grow up to become good communicators.

There are three approaches in listening comprehension: bottom-up, top-down, and interactive approaches.

a. Bottom-up approaches

Bottom-up point of view looks the process of listening as the way to get information from the (listening) text. This approach believes that linguistic knowledge decides whether or not the listener understands the text. Understanding of information starts from the very low level of recognition: listening to sounds, phonemes, words, sentences; considering the structures of each sentence, as well as taking the non-linguistic context into consideration. In the process of comprehension listeners may also try to guess what a speaker is saying (Brown at Nasrudin, 2013: 5). Buck at Nasrudin (2013: 5) explains that this process of listening constitutes the sequence from audio input transferred into phonemes (the smallest meaningful unit of sounds), recognizing words at syntactic level, predicting semantic contents, understanding meaning through basic linguistic meaning, to interpreting literal meaning based on the context of communication.

b. Top-down approaches

In the view of top-down approach, the schemata or background knowledge plays an important role in the listening process. The schemata will help the understanding of a text because the knowledge can make the listener know what the topic is being talked about, and if the listener knows about the topic, it will make him or her get the meaning because he or she has already known about the topic. Buck at Nasrudin (2013), points out that in

the top-down process, any knowledge to understand a text is used randomly as needed by the listener. In this way, listeners do not rely on their understanding about words first than their understanding about sentences, but they try to understand, for example, from the context. Listeners analyze the sentences, then find out what words are important for comprehension, until they can understand the content of the text. The problem that may appear in listening is not “the lack of skill” in receiving information and using context, but more on “the ability to apply it when listening to foreign language” (Ur, 1984: 21).

c. Interactive approaches

The interactive approach of listening is promoted by Brown (2001). Based on this approach, the listening processes consist of eight steps. Firstly, the listener processes “the raw speech” and keep an “image” (phrases, clauses, cohesive markers, intonation and stress patterns). Then he or she determines the type of speech (e.g., conversation or speech) and interpret the message. Next, the listener deduces the purpose of the speaker based on the types, context, and content of the speech event. After that, the listener refers to background information (schemata) to match it with the context and topic. Subsequently, the listener gives a literal meaning to the utterance. Then, the listener transfers an intended meaning to the utterance. In the next step, the listener decides if the information should be kept in short term memory or long term memory. Finally, the listener omits the

form in which the information was initially obtained. Except for the first and the final steps of comprehension, the steps in between are not necessarily in a sequential order.

The three approaches make use of many elements for comprehension: words, phrases, sentences, and also the context (linguistic and non-linguistics contexts of utterances). It should be used in the teaching of listening since they are beneficial for training to improve listening skill. EFL learners should be introduced to the second and third point of view, since both can be a strategy to listening comprehension. Teachers may ask students to use their schemata to predict what topic is being discussed and ask them to use their linguistic skill to comprehend more about the text (Nasrudin, 2013: 6).

In order to support bottom-up and top-down work, teacher may want to focus on giving them listening tasks that are meaning driven and help them to develop these strategies slowly. In order to support top-down processing, teacher can make sure that listening is carefully embedded in the here-and-now context familiar games and routines such as stories and action rhymes so that children do not need to infer the context or topic for themselves. Gestures and visuals will help, too. With regard to bottom-up processing, it is important that children are given task that do not required them to manipulate linguistic features that they do not know yet and are not interested in, such as translating, analyzing constituent parts of phrase and sentences, and substituting patterns. Instead, children should start with easier “listen and do” activities.

Where we do start with younger learners? In order to give children plenty of listening practice to help them tune into English, many young learner's course books and resource books initially recommend mainly activities which require nonverbal responses from children. One such task is to listen to rhymes or action stories or song and enjoy them by miming the actions rather than immediately producing the language. The nonverbal contributions help make sense of the content. The important principle is that children have the opportunity to absorb the language before they have to say anything (Pinter, 2010: 51).

B. Listening Sequence

Current thinking suggests that listening sequences should usually be divided into three parts: pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening. These three stages will be exemplified at length in this and the following point.

1. Pre-listening

The pre-listening stages described below help our students to prepare for what they are going to hear, and this gives them a greater chance of success in any given task. The first stage of pre-listening usually involves activating schemata in order to help students to predict the content of the listening passage. The second stage is setting up a reason to listen. Maybe there is an information gap that needs to be filled or an opinion gap or pre-set question, or perhaps the students have asked questions based on things they would hope to hear.

2. While-listening

The students hear the input once, probably listening for gist, although of course there may be occasions when they need to listen for specific information or listen in detail. They check their answer in pairs or groups. This is to give them confidence and to open up any areas of doubt. They then listen a second time, either in order to check or to answer more detailed questions. It is important that the students should be required to do different tasks every time they listen (listening to check answer is slightly different from listening to answer question).

How many times should students listen to a passage? Some commentators say “once”. They point out that in real life we may not get second and third chances. For teaching purposes, however, multiple opportunities to hear the input give students a safety net which helps to reduce their anxiety. There are a number of other factors concerning the passage that come into play: difficulty, length, the pedagogical focus and the potential for boredom. It may be the case that students only need to listen again to the part that they found difficult. If the focus is on close language analysis, it might be necessary to repeat several times, whereas, if the focus is on listening to gist, it won't be. Hearing the same passage three times is probably the maximum before feelings of boredom begin to set in. Furthermore, if a listener has been unable to decode a word or phrase after hearing it three

times, the problem is probably not one that can be solved by repeated exposure to the same recording.

With longer passages, teachers might consider “chunking” the text by pausing it at various intervals. This can help to make extended listening more accessible and to avoid overloading the students.

3. Post-listening

The whole class checks answers, discusses difficulties such as unknown vocabulary, and responds to the content of the passage, usually orally, sometimes in writing. This may be done in plenary (with the whole class) or in pairs or groups.

A final stage may involve the mining of the recording for useful language, a particular grammatical structure, vocabulary or discourse markers, for example.

Here is a summary of the sequence:

Pre-listening	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Activate schemata: What do I know? 2. Reason: Why listen? 3. Prediction: What can I expect to hear?
While-listening	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Monitor (1): Are my expectations met? 2. Monitor (2): Am I succeeding in the task?
Post-listening	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Feedback: Did I fulfill the task? 2. Respond: How can I respond?

The above is the most common sequence for a listening lesson, although the duration of each stage will vary. Why has this sequence developed? Both research and instinct tell us that students have more chance of succeeding when they know something about the topic and are mentally attuned to what they may hear. These are, after all, the conditions under which most listening takes place outside the classroom. Also, as started in the quotation that begins this chapter, we listen with a purpose and with certain expectations, hence the development of classroom exercises that ask students to listen purposefully. During the post-listening phase there is now an emphasis on helping students with difficulties, and reflecting on performance. The post-listening stage also developed with the realization that listening provides excellent input and that this input needs to be analyzed (Wilson, 2008: 60-61).

C. The Importance of Listening

It is important to children to listen to as much English of an appropriate level as possible. The level should either be easy for them, at their present level, or just beyond the level they can already understand. If the level is too difficult, the children may lose confidence and positivity. Some teacher say that should first hear a new language target for a while before speaking it, and for quite some time before reading and writing it. One of the arguments often made in support of this approach is that babies hear a new item of their native language first, say them next, and read and write them some time later. Another argument in favor of

learning listening first is that expect children to speak before they feel ready to do so, they may lose motivation.

This all depend on the age of the learners. In fact native speakers who are of elementary school age do not always come across new language items by hearing them first, they may say them very soon afterwards.

The children very often do first hear new language target when we introduce them by using them in a natural context. The children listen, notice the patterns, and then try to use these patterns to express themselves either soon after hearing them or sometime after.

At any point in their learning of English, children can comprehend more than they can use communicatively. There is comprehension zone beyond their current communication level that contains words, patterns, and chunks of language that they understand, but have not yet internalize deeply enough to be able to produce actively and flexibly. If this zone contains a rich supply of language items that they will soon be able to link into their mental models of English, their ability to communicate is likely to improve more quickly.

This means we would interact with the children in English, encourage the children to listen tapes at home, and have background songs in the lessons, always making sure the children are encountering graded language that is within each child's comprehension zone (Paul 2003: 72).

D. Listening Principle

Based on Harmer (2007: 135) there are six principles in listening. Here are the principles:

- a Encourage students to listen as often and as much as possible.

The more students listen, the better they get at listening – and the better they get at understanding pronunciation and at using it appropriately themselves.

- b Help students prepare to listen

Students need to be made ready to listen. This means that they will need to look at pictures, discuss the topic, or read the question first, for example, in order to be in a position to predict what is coming. This is not just so that they are in the right frame of mind (and are thinking about the topic), but also so that they are engaged with the topic and task and really want to listen.

- c Once may not be enough.

There are almost no occasions when the teacher will play an audio track only once. Students will want to hear it again to pick up the things they missed the first time – and we may well want them to have a chance to study some of the language features on the tape.

In the case of live listening, students should be encouraged to ask for repetition and clarification when they need it.

The first listening to a text is often used just to give students an idea of what the speakers sound like, and what the general topic is so that

subsequent listening are easier for them. For subsequent listening, we may stop the audio track at various points, or only play extracts from it. However, we will have to ensure that we don't go on and on working with the same audio track.

- d Encourage students to respond to the content of a listening, not just to the language.

An important part of a listening sequence is for teachers to draw out the meaning of what is being said, discern what is intended and find out what impression it makes on the students. Question such as “Do you agree with what they say?” and “Did you find the listening interesting? Why?” are just as important as question like “What language use and a range of pronunciation issues.

- e Different listening stages demand different listening tasks.

Because there are different things we want to do with a listening text, we need to set different task for different listening stages. This means that, for a first listening, the task may need to be fairly straightforward and general. That way, the students' general understanding and response can be successful – and the stress associated with listening can be reduced.

- f Good teachers exploit listening texts to the full.

If teachers ask students to invest time and emotional energy in a listening text – and if they themselves have spent time choosing and preparing the listening sequence – then it makes sense to use the audio track or live

listening experience for as many different applications as possible. Thus, after an initial listening, the teacher can play a track again for various kinds of study before using the subject matter, situation or audio script for a new activity. The listening then becomes an important event in a teaching sequence rather than just an exercise by itself.

E. Definition of vocabulary

Learning a foreign language can not be separated from practicing vocabulary. It means that when a person learns a language, he or she should learn the word. To learn the words mean that he or she should know the vocabulary. Vocabulary is also necessary for the students to acquire a language. By knowing enough vocabulary, students can make sentences and speak English although it is not grammatically correct.

Many teacher consider that teaching vocabulary is not as easy at it looks, it is also boring lesson for the students as well. The teachers have to select the words to be taught since the number of words is unlimited and it is not possible to teach all of the words.

There are some definitions of vocabulary given, Hornby (1994:959) defined that” Vocabulary is:

- a. The total number of words in a language.
- b. All the words known to a person or used in a particular book, subject.

- c. A list of words with their meanings, especially one that accompanies a text book in a foreign language”.

Furthermore Kamil and Hiebert (2005:3) defined that, “Vocabulary is the knowledge of meanings of words”. However, vocabulary is more complex than this definition suggests. First, words come in two forms: oral and print. Oral vocabulary includes those words that we recognize and use in listening and speaking. Print vocabulary includes those words that we recognize and use in reading and writing. Second, word knowledge also comes in two forms, receptive and productive.

Based on some definition above, we can know that vocabulary is meaning of words; a list of words that can be used in conversation, or a sentence. In communication, to understand a sentence is not as easy as to understand words. Because to understand the meaning of sentence is not just by understanding words by words, but we must see the context. Unless, this is practice regularly, the knowledge about word meaning would be quickly forgotten. Thus, based on the definitions above, vocabulary is an important skill to acquire and becomes one of important aspects to learn other skill; reading, listening, writing, grammar.

There are categories in English vocabulary. First, structure are words that do not have meaning that you can look up in a dictionary. If you look them up in a dictionary, you will not be told what they mean, but how they are used. Structure words are used to combine the content words into a sentences. Second is a words. They are word that describe things, people, events, and processes. It consist of

nouns, adverbs, verbs and adjectives. A meaningful sentence is creative from the combination of structure and content words.

From the explanation above, we can know that understanding the meaning of a sentence depends on the understanding of the words in the sentences. It is still quite difficult for students who are trying to acquire new or unfamiliar words. If the students do not know the vocabulary, it is impossible for the students ideas. Thus, the teacher should make a good plan in teaching vocabulary. It will enable them to understand the lesson that is presented by the teacher. In learning vocabulary, the students should have some understanding of what a new words refer to, and of the situation in which be used. Then the students should learn something about the meaning of the words and the relationship between various words in certain context.

F. The Importance of Vocabulary

According to Wallace (2002), “Vocabulary the most important in communication”. Without vocabulary, we can not express our idea or understand the message. Difficulty of communication means a big problem for everyone and need attention. Furthermore, According to Richards and Renandya (2002:255), “vocabulary is a core component of language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how well learner speak, listen, read, and write”. It is means that without an extensive vocabulary and strategies for acquiring new vocabulary, learners often achieve less than their potential and may be discouraged from

making use of language learning opportunities around them such as listening to the radio, listening to native speaker, using the language in different contexts, reading, or watching television.

Vocabulary improves when you know what words mean. Since vocabulary is the ultimate goal of communication and have big impact for all skill. You can not overestimate the important of vocabulary development. Mentioned by Lewis “vocabulary as being basic to communication”.

Although, vocabulary is not the main subject on the teaching and learning process, we still cannot neglect its existence. Vocabulary needs sentences and sentences consist of clauses and phrases. Part of clauses and phrases consist of words. Here can be seen the role of vocabulary in language. Without words there will not be sentences, without sentences would not be language or communication. As Allan, said that “words are the currency of communication”.

The words that can be understood by students when reading, listening, writing, and speaking. Those skills are critical to success in school. This is the reason why vocabulary is an essential element of effective skill. But, you can build your active vocabulary by writing down all the new vocabulary encountered during lesson and homework. And build your receptive vocabulary by reading and listening to as much English as you can. This is true even your mother tongue and also in English. During this period of exam preparation seem to be invertible process, unless we use a method or technique, which make the students enrich in vocabulary and finally can communicate well.

G. The Characteristic of Young Learners

Based on Piaget at Pinter (2010) referred to active learning as “constructivism”. He suggested that children construct knowledge for themselves by actively making sense of their environment. For example, a young child might know that baby birds such as chicks and ducklings are hatched from eggs. When this child comes across other animals during a visit to a farm, he or she assumes that the pigs are hatched from eggs to. According to Piaget, this is the process of “assimilation”. The child is assimilating information to fit his or her own interpretation of the world and existing ways of thinking (i.e all animals are hatched from eggs). At this point the child will have to adapt or change his or her way of thinking to accommodate this new idea. Piaget refers to this process as “accommodation”. Without this adaption – something that the child has to do for himself – learning would not take place. Assimilation and accommodation thus describe two sides of the same process, i.e. learning. Such interaction between the environment and children’s existing knowledge is ongoing and throughout the years further and further refinement are added to the growing knowledge base. In this way, children are active constructor of their knowledge of the world.

Teachers and parents can often judge very well what their children can or cannot yet do or understand. Even though children are all unique learners, they also show some characteristics in common with their peers. When parents of similar-aged children talk together they often realize that their children act similarly in a range of situations. For example, parents of five-year-olds find that

their children use similar arguments in conversations or enjoy very similar games, activities, and jokes.

Such similarities within age bands were observed by Piaget too, and he developed his famous framework which suggests that there are four universal stages of development that all children go through. Piaget and his colleagues constructed tasks and conducted experiments based on this theory and produced a detailed description of the four stages:

1. Sensory-motor stage (from birth to two years of age)

The young child learns to interact with the environment by manipulating objects around him.

2. Pre-operational stage (from two to seven years of age)

The child's thinking is largely reliant on perception but he or she gradually becomes more and more capable of logical thinking. On the whole this stage is characterized by egocentrism (a kind of self-centeredness) and a lack of logical thinking.

3. Concrete operational stage (from seven to eleven years of age)

Year 7 is the "turning point" in cognitive development because children's thinking begins to resemble "logical" adult-like thinking. They develop the ability to apply logical reasoning in several areas of knowledge at the same time (such as math, science, or map reading) but this ability is restricted to the immediate context. This means that children at this stage cannot generalize their understanding.

4. Formal operational stage (from eleven years onwards)

Children are able to think beyond the immediate context in more abstract terms. They are able to carry out logical operations such as deductive reasoning in a systematic way. They achieve “formal logic” (Pinter, 2010: 6-7).

H. Young Learners as Second Language Learners

Children in an English as a foreign language class will listen to great variety of texts but above all to their teacher: talking, singing, chanting, dramatizing dialogues, giving instructions, and telling stories. Although, in the early stages the teacher will remain their main source of listening input, children might also listen to video and audio tapes especially if these come with the course book the teacher is using. Teacher can be supported with good quality tapes to accompany their teaching if there are not yet confident about their own language proficiency (Pinter, 2010: 45).

If language is learned in the early years of life in interaction and in participation in activities of many kinds, schooling should, at the very least, seek to stimulate and extend language learning activities in comparable ways. The role of the teacher-though not the same as that of the parent-will certainly be to challenge and extend language learning, for this will be essential to development of successfully independent learners. Adult have a critical role in guiding, challenging and supporting language learning in schools. In order to pursue the

point a little more fully, it will be necessary to say more about early language learning (Christie, 2005: 17). There is evidence that target language words are learned most effectively when learners pick them up unconsciously, such as when reading an interesting book or having a meaningful conversation, rather than when learners make deliberate efforts to memorize these words. When such unintentional word learning takes place, words are learned as a by-product of another activity whether it be talking to an English-speaking peer or listening to an English language story (Gordon, 2007: 66).

I. Teaching Young Learners

In language learning context it is believed that children will learn a foreign language more effectively under certain conditions. Therefore, there are some assumptions about language learning that should be considered when teaching English as foreign language to children. The following are some assumptions, to mention only a few, and we may propose another list of assumptions of your own. The assumption below are adapted from different source (Setiyadi, 2006: 179-180).

- a. Learning should be fun and natural for children. In order for them to be successful in learning the target language, there must be the absence of stress. It is commonly believed that the environment of the language learning often causes stress and anxiety. Children are believed not to learn language from directly; commands are believed to be helpful for children

to interpret meanings. This activity is believed to liberate self-conscious and stressful situations.

- b. The language should be first presented through sounds, not written symbols. Listening and speaking are worked on as the learners produce meaningful utterances concerning physical objects and their own experience. After children can produce sounds in the target language and connect the sounds with the truth, they may begin to read symbols in the target language. This process can begin after the children are able to understand what other people speak (listening) and able to produce the language (speaking).
- c. Children are more sensitive to anything that touches the senses; they react easily to physical objects. Language is taught by having the students use their senses: touch, see, listen, smell, and even taste if necessary. This will help them relate the linguistics signs to truth that they perceive with their senses.
- d. Meaning should be made perceptible through concrete objects or by the presentation of experience. When a language learner makes a mistake or misconception of something, the teacher does not correct it through translation but he or she tries to show something to make a meaning clear.
- e. The idea that teaching should start from what the students already know in order to encourage association processes seems to favor children. By teaching through this way, children are expected to know what they are

doing. They are not only saying something without being aware of what they are saying. In order for them to be aware, the new materials have to have relationship with the previous one so that they can easily make associations since the association process is a necessary part of learning. Thus, language teacher should build open the learning process by adding one new segment of language to the previous one; he or she starts from what the language learners already know in order to encourage association processes. To facilitate inductive processes, language teacher is suggested to deal with rule at a time. This is in accordance with the Input Hypothesis, which claims that human acquire by receiving comprehensible input (Krashen at Setiyadi, 2006: 181). Students are able to understand language containing unacquired grammar with the help of context.

The methods for teaching children should maintain the characteristics of children in order that students can learn target language optimally. One of the common principles that may be considered to develop or choose methods for children is that learning a foreign language should be fun and natural. From this principle a language teacher may develop his or her own techniques, such as introducing songs and games to make their learning fun and natural. In addition to the techniques, the choice of vocabulary and structure also make teaching children different from other levels. A language teacher should choose the simple vocabulary and structure that are relatively easy to learn.

Gordon, 2007: 79 stated there are some strategies used by language teachers to make input comprehensible are the following:

1. Teachers use phrases whose meaning is clear in the immediate context. Thus, first conversations with language learners are embedded in games and activities where language use is accompanied by movement, manipulation of objects, or demonstration with pictures. In these activities, the context of teacher-students conversations makes the meaning of input clear.
2. Speaking slowly (not loudly!), with frequent pauses, repeating, paraphrasing, and restating utterances are helpful communication strategies.
3. Coupling language with nonverbal communication strategies, such as gesture and pantomime are also helpful in making the message accessible to learners. Gesture can help convey various shades of meanings, such as speed and size, distance and shape, motion and immobility.
4. To enhance comprehensibility of a message, language teacher also employ dramatic intonations and volume adjustment. For instance using dramatic intonation to suggest a character trait when reading a picture book or low and high volume to portray the atmosphere or the mood in a book scene serve as helpful meaning clarification strategies.

J. Assessment of Young English Language Learners

The question considered in this section of the chapter is “what features does the language test (or any other test for that matter) need to possess in order to be useful?”

To answer the question above, let us compare a language test to another measurement device such as a thermometer, a scale, or a speedometer. While the thermometer measure temperature, the scale measure weight, and the speedometer measures speed, the language test is meant to measure a child’s command of language or demonstrate to the public the rate of academic progress of English language learners.

Just like any other measurement devices, language test can be good or poor. What characteristic does a language test need to possess in order to be good? First and foremost, quite obviously, it must provide accurate measurements or, to use the term employed by assessment specialist, be reliable. To consider what constitutes test reliability, let us compare a test to a scale. Think of the bathroom scale. If you step on it five times within half an hour (without having snacked in between) and see that the scale shows the exact same figure, you are assured that your scale is in good repair. If, on the other hand, every time you step on the scale, a different figure pops up on the display, you are likely to suspect that there is something wrong with the instrument. This very important principle is observed in all kinds of measurement. Accurate measuring instruments are consistent. If an

object being measured has not changed, an accurate measuring instrument should show the same or a very similar result.

The same consistency principle is applied to language test (and all other tests for that matter). If a language learner takes versions A, B, and C of the same test without having done any additional preparation and without having expended her English language skill, and if each time she earns a different score on that test, the teacher has every reason to say that the test is no good. Similarly, if two students who read, write, and speak English equally well or equally poorly earn vastly different score on a standardized language test, the teacher will question reliability of this evaluative instrument. Like any other measuring device, an educational test is reliable when many children who are equally well or equally poorly prepared earn scores within a very close range of each other.

In order to be reliable, a measuring devices needs to be well made, that is, it needs to be well calibrated and well constructed. The same holds true of a language test. What kind of a language test can be described as well made? Some of the criteria that determine reliability of assessment instrument meant for young second language learners are as follows:

1. The language test has clear directions. It tells language learners what exactly they need to do in simple, clear, and unambiguous language.
2. If the test has an open-ended task, it explicitly tells test takers the extent of the desired response.
3. The test is made of tasks that are free of ambiguity and easy to interpret.

4. The print and graphic materials are user-friendly; its pages do not look overcrowded; its graphics are lean, simple, and attractive.
5. The language test is neither too short nor too long. (if the test contains too few tasks, students might get an inaccurately low score by inadvertently getting just one answer wrong or an accurately high score by accidentally getting just one answer right).
6. The well-made assessment instrument also has provisions for reliable scoring. By providing scoring rubrics and unambiguous scoring guidelines, it enables the test reader to interpret test results accurately and to assign correct scores to test takers.
7. The test site staff and physical environment provide a supportive atmosphere. Learners' state of mind at the time they take a language test and the physical environment at the test site are all part of test reliability. If a learner is overly nervous or distracted at the time of testing, the test will fail to provide accurate results.

We can find out whether a language test is reliable or not by performing some relatively simple procedures. One of the reliability evaluation procedures is known as a split-half test. When this procedure is implemented, a group of students complete all even-numbered tasks contained in a test and then do all odd-numbered tasks. If both times students get the same (or almost the same) score, the test is reliable. Another method used to evaluate the reliability of a language test is the so-called test-retest procedure. When this method is used, two different versions of the

same test are taken by the same group of individuals within a short time period. If subjects of the test-retest procedure get a low score one time and a high score a second time, the test are clearly unreliable. Conversely, when each individual who participates in a test-retest experiment earns the scores that fall within the close range of each other, the test is pretty reliable.

Reliability is not all there is to a good language test. A good test is also valid. To understand the concept of validity, let us again consider a scale analogy. There are all kinds of scales out there. Some scale are used for weighing human bodies, others are for weighing huge containers, and still others are for weighing miniscule amounts of chemicals. It is not enough that these measuring tools should be well made and reliable. It is also important that they be able to provide the kind of information that one needs to collect. You would not get very far if you tried to weigh electronic particles with a bathroom scale no matter how well that bathroom scale is designed. It is not enough that a measuring instrument be well made or reliable. For any measuring procedure, you need to be assured that the device you are using can provide the kind of data that you seek to obtain. Language tests used in school are no exception. These assessment tolls should also be appropriate for educators' intentions and have the capacity to provide the type of data which educators are interested in gathering.

When educators clam that a test is invalid, they argue that it does not yield the data which they seek to obtain. Can a test be reliable without being valid? The answer is yes. Unlike test reliability, test validity is not quantifiable. There is no

simple number that can express the tests' capability to provide users with the kind of information that they are seeking to obtain. The job of assessing test validity is performed by terms of competent expert. Qualified, experienced language educators alone can say whether task contained in a test can really measure language proficiency or language attainment of language learners (Gordon, 2007: 201-204).

K. Teaching Listening for Young Learners

It is quite clear that listening is the skill that children acquire first, especially if they have not yet learnt to read. When the children start to learn a foreign language, it is going in mainly through their ears and what the children hear is their main source of the language. Of course, we also give them as much visual back-up as possible through facial expression, through movement, picture and soon.

It is worth remembering too that once something has been said, then it disappears. If you reading, you can go back and check, or you can re-read something you don't quite understand. This isn't possible when you are listening, so when we are talking and the children are listening, it's important to say things clearly, and to repeat them. Because the listeners can't re-listen in the same way that they can re-read how fast you work. Therefore, you have to concentrate very hard when you are listening. Young learners have very short attention span. This is something which increases with age for most children, and you'll find that the

eight to ten years olds can sit still and listen for no longer periods. But, it's important not to overload children when you're working on listening task.

Some listening activities will make students up, make them move about, create movement or noise. Other will clam them down, make the concentrate on what is in front of them, and create a peaceful atmosphere. Sometimes you want to have a nice quite atmosphere and sometimes you want your children to move about, and you can use listening activities or both purposes (Scoot and Ytreberg, 2010:22)

According to Scoot and Ytreberg, there are some activities to be applied in listening skill especially for young learners. Those activity are moving about, put up your hand, mime stories, drawing, listening for information, rhymes, and listening to stories. Based on the Scoot and Ytreberg statement, one effective and nonthreatening way for young learners to develop stronger listening skills is through drawing technique. Thus, this research discus about implementation of drawing technique towards listening ability.

L. Drawing Technique

Drawing is to make a picture or something or someone with a pencil or pen. There are two main activities in drawing technique; listen and draw. The most obvious "listen and do" activity which we can and should make use of from the moment we start the English lessons is giving genuine instructions. Most classroom language is a type of "listen and do" activity. communication in two

way and you can see very easily if your students have understood the message or not (Scoot and Ytreberg, 2010: 22).

Listen and draw is favorite type of listening activity in almost all classes, but remember that drawing takes time, so keep the pictures simple. In “listen and draw” activities the teacher or one of the students, tells the other students what to draw. You can make up a picture or describe a picture you have in front of you. The activity is particularly useful for checking object vocabulary, prepositions, colours, and numbers. It is not useful for actions, since drawing people doing things is quite difficult for most of us (Scoot and Ytreberg, 2010: 24).