CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The main purpose of this chapter is to present the review of literature on important issues related to this research. It has had an outline of the theoretical framework essential to an understanding the present study, including teaching and learning English in Savannakhet Teacher Training College, the language of hospitality, listening in general, speaking in general, using authentic materials, the efficiency, and A number of previous studies related to the present investigation.

2.1 Teaching and Learning English in Savannakhet Teacher Training College

According to Department of Teacher Training Office, Ministry of Education, Lao PDR, learning and teaching English was presented in Savannakhet Teacher Training College (STTC) in 1994. STTC is one of 10 teacher-training institutions in Lao PDR. It runs four teacher training programs, which offers from diploma to bachelor's degrees to awardees.

2.1.1 English Education Program

English Education Program has 3 sub-programs, namely: 12 + 4 program, 11 + 3 + 2 program, and 11 + 3 + 3 program. The following details are presented as follows:

English 12 + 4 Education program, which offers bachelor's degree to the awardees, takes 2,688 hours. It has a total of 153 credits. These graduates want to work as English teachers in the Lao secondary schools. English 11 + 3 + 2 educational program is called the continuing English program for the learners who have already graduated from 11 + 3 program and continue 2 more years at STTC. The 11+3 program used to be organized at STTC. (The last batch of 11 + 3 program was ended in 2012 – 2013). The 11 + 3 + 2 program consists of 832 hours within 75 credits. After graduation from 11 + 3 + 2 program, the graduates are awarded Bachelor's degree. English 11 + 3 + 3 educational program of program is organized in summer, so it is called the English Summer Program. The learners who enroll in this program were the ones who graduated from the 11 + 3 program. (The last batch of 11 + 3 program in STTC was ended in 2012 – 2013). The 11 + 3 + 3 program consists of 496 hours within 75 credits. After graduation from the 11 + 3 + 3 program, the graduates are awarded Bachelor's degree.

2.1.2 General English Programs

General English Program has 2 sub-programs namely: 12 + 3 program, and 12 + 3 + 2 program. The details of each program are as follows:

General English 12 + 3 program offers a Diploma to the awardees. It consists of 1,920 hours within the total of 110 credits. This program has the purpose to train the participants to learn general English. The graduates from this program are not required to work as teachers, but they are required to work as the civil servants or staff of other sectors. General English 12 + 3 + 2 program is called the Continuing English program for the learners who graduated from the 12 + 3 program. The 12 + 3 + 2

program consists of 1,280 hours within 72 credits. After graduation, the graduates are awarded a Bachelor's degree.

2.1.2.1 General English 6

According to the Department of Teacher Training's Curriculum, Ministry of Education in Lao PDR, the General English 6 program was introduced in 2011. The 12+4 program is for normal course students. The major subject is general English 6. This subject consists of eleven units, which are taught 96 hours in one semester, that is 6 hours a week. The credit is 4 (2 – 4 – 2). General English 6 has a purpose to develop students' four skills (i.e. Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing), vocabulary and sentence structure. In addition, it provides cross-cultural knowledge to the learners.

2.1.2.2 Grade Requirements

Classroom participation and attendance	15 %
Individual work assessment	20 %
Group work assessment	15 %
Middle test	20 %
Final examination	30 %
Total	100%

2.1.2.3 Grading Criteria

Scores	Grades
90 – 100	A
81 – 89	B+

75 – 80	B
68 – 74	C+
60 – 67	C
51 – 59	D+
45 – 50	D
0 – 44	O

2.2 Tourism and Hospitality Services in Laos

2.2.1 Tourism and Hospitality Services in Laos

English for hospitality is necessary in Lao PDR, since hospitality services play an important role to increase incomes among local Lao workers from tourism. Therefore, there is a great need to provide services during the hospitality process, and it is necessarily to involve guests from different nations and backgrounds. For effective staff (as hosts) need to know the language of hospitality in order to deal with foreign customers (as guests).

According to Lao cultural profile (2013), tourism is the fastest growing sector in Laos as can be seen in the tables below:

Table 2.1

Annual Statistics of Tourism Arrivals in Laos

Year	Tourism Arrivals	Changes
2011	2,723,564	▲14.9%
2012	3,3300,72	▲22.27%

Table 2.1 shows the annual statistics of tourism arrivals. As can be seen, the tourism arrivals has been increased from 14.9% in 2011 to 22.27% in 2012.

Table 2.2

Ranking of International Visitor arrivals in Laos

Rank	Country		2011	2012
1		Thailand	1,579,941	1,937,612
2		Vietnam	561,586	705,596
3		China	150,791	199,857
4		South Korea	34,707	53,829
5		United States	50,092	53,380
6		France	44,399	46,903
7		Japan	37,883	42,026
8		United Kingdom	35,622	35,964
9		Autralia	31,874	33,878
10		Germany	21,280	23,417

Table 2.2 has shown that most of visitors visited Lao PDR in 2011 and 2012 were from Asian countries, especially the neighboring countries such as Thailand, Vietnam, China...etc. Moreover, people from European countries namely France, Germany, United Kingdom and others also visited Lao PDR. From the statistics shown here, we can assume that English is necessary for the tourism sector, especially listening and speaking capacity.

At the present time, all tourist destination countries are engaged in competing for tourists. As with many countries involved in this competitive growth process, the

Lao government believes that the tourism and hospitality industry is able to bring the country even greater income and employment opportunities. With this motivation the Lao government has been working hard to further encourage the growth of this industry.

2.2.2 English Language Skills for Hospitality Service

As the world gets smaller, people around the world have more chance to communicate with each other. The business transaction is one opportunity which helps these people to meet for their businesses. Additionally, the cooperation and competition in global businesses such as the hospitality service sector requires that communication includes an understanding of other cultures and how to communicate appropriately with people from other cultures. With the hospitality industry in the modern world being very involded in global business, and dealing with international clients, proficiency in language, especially English as an international language, is viewed as an important tool for business negotiation (for example, Widdowson, 1983; Dudley-Evens & St. John, 1998, Graddol, 2001). As the use of English language skills for hospitality services is the main focus of this study, it is important to have the issue of English language skills.

2.3 Listening

2.3.1 Definition of Listening

Listening is one of the four language learning skills, targeted variously by the scholars who have proposed a number of different definitions of listening. For the purpose of the present study, however, listening is an active and interactional

process in which a listener receives speech, sounds, and tries to attach meaning to the message of the speaker or the oral text, so he/she can respond effectively to oral communication. Listening involves an active process of deciphering and constructing meaning from both verbal and non-verbal messages (Nunan. 1998). Underwood (1989) defines listening as the activity of paying attention to and trying to get meaning from something heard. Emmert (1994) defines listening as an active process which students receive, construct, understand meaning and respond to spoken or nonverbal message. Thompson and Rubin (1996) state that listening process is usually described from an information processing perspective as an active process that learners select and interpret information from auditory and visual clues in order to understand what is going on and what the speaker is trying to express. Purdy (1997) also defines the meaning of listening as the active and dynamic process of attending, perceiving, interpreting, remembering, and responding to expression, needs, concerns, and information offered by human beings. It can be concluded that listening is an interactive and communicative skill, which involves an ability to understand the message of people. If people cannot understand the message from the speaker, listening comprehension does not take place, and effective communication cannot occur.

According to Euck (2001), good listeners need different sub-skills such as different kinds of texts to listen to and the reasons for listening to. Certainly, there is no one very good at providing suitable needs to each learner, so the teacher needs to teach the strategies for dealing with the learners who have misunderstood. In addition, the teacher can help students to become effective learners by making them aware of different sorts of listening, the different purposes of listening, and the qualities of

good listeners. Wolvin and Coakley (1992) identify four different types of listening as follows:

    1. Listening Comprehension: students listen for the content of the message.

    2. Critical Listening: students judge the message.

    3. Appreciate Listening: students listen for enjoyment.

    4. Therapeutic Listening: students listen to support others but not judge them.

In the listening class and listening comprehension lessons, various methods or techniques should be applied to make the lessons challenging and interesting. It is important to employ vary interesting activities to stimulate students' interest and challenge them with something new. For instance, if teacher always uses the same activities, students would be bored. If learners have more chances to listen to many situations, they can predict what speakers are going to say. Mendelsohn (1995) states that the reason why listening skills are not widespread in terms of teaching, that is, the English oral materials as a foreign language are not appropriate for learners. Thus, they do not develop the learners' listening skills in the real world. There are some suggestions for English teachers to organize the listening lessons for their students as follows:

    1. Present the students with different kinds of input, namely: listening to lectures, radio news, films, TV plays, announcement or advertisement, everyday conversations, interviews, story-telling, English songs and so on.

    2. Try to discover visual aids or draw pictures and diagrams related the listening topics. Grade listening materials according to the students' level. Teaching

approaches that focus on the effectiveness of listening comprehension requires a warm and relaxed classroom atmosphere.

To sum up, this section has presented the meaning of listening and it implies more than just perception of sounds; a listening process also requires an act at attending to the speech sounds and trying to understand the message.

2.3.2 Listening Situations and Purposes

Many learners of English find themselves sooner or later in a variety of situations where they need or want to listen to English being used in the real life for a range of purposes. These situations depend on where they live, work and stay, etc. The reasons for listening are many and varied, depending on what they need and wish to do. According to Galvin (1985), there are five main reasons for listening, and the reasons of students for listening will generally fall under one or other these categories:

1. to exchange information.
2. to share feelings.
3. to enjoy yourself.
4. to engage in social rituals.
5. to exert control.

Most listening occurs in the course of conversation. Each participant in the conversation switches roles and becomes alternately speaker and listener.

2.3.3 Types of Listening

Coakely (1996; cited in Goh. 2002) states five types of listening, namely discriminative listening, comprehensive listening, therapeutic listening, critical listening and appreciative listening. The details of each type are as follows:

2.3.3.1 Discriminative Listening

Discriminative listening is the most basic type of listening, whereby the different sounds are identified. The objective of discriminative listening is to distinguish sound and visual stimuli. This objective does not aim to mention meaning; instead the focus is largely on sounds. As mentioned before the focus is not on comprehending, but on accustoming the ears to the sounds. Depending on the level of the students, the listening can be discriminating sounds to identify individual words.

2.3.3.2 Comprehensive Listening

Comprehensive listening is to focus on understanding the message. To comprehend the meaning requires having a lexicon of words and the rules of grammar and syntax, which help EFL learners, understand what others are saying. On the other hand, depending on many factors (both individual and social) students can end up understanding the same message in different ways. A teacher can try to find a lot of techniques in teaching listening in order to develop students' listening comprehension skills.

2.3.3.3 Therapeutic Listening

Therapeutic listening is one kind of listening where the listener's role is to be a sympathetic listener without much verbal response. In this kind of listening,

listener allows somebody to talk through a problem. This kind of listening is very important in building good interpersonal relations.

2.3.3.4 Critical Listening

Critical listening is a rational process of evaluating arguments put forward by others or Critical listening is to mention about listeners who have to evaluate the message. In addition, listeners also have to critically respond to the message and give their opinions in communication.

2.3.3.5 Appreciative Listening

An appreciative listening focuses on enjoying what one listens. EFL learners like listening to English music without understanding its meaning. However, they still enjoy it. Then they try to reflect on the practice listening to songs in the language class. Generally, students listen to the songs once and try to make out the lyrics before listening to them in a second time with lyrics. Furthermore, they recall and appreciate the songs better in the second time.

2.3.4 How to Teach Listening in EFL Class

Underwood (1989: 145) remarks "to teach" mean "facilitate learning" and the role of the teacher is the support and guidance of learners instead or controller or tester. There are three stages of teaching listening. The first stage of teaching listening is the pre-listening. The second stage of teaching listening is the while-listening, and the last stage of teaching listening is the post-listening.

2.3.4.1 The Pre-listening Stage

In this stage, a teacher has to consider some important points such as listeners' expectation, types of pre-listening activities, authentic activities, the need for clear instructions, teacher's books as a source of idea, factors which affect the choice of pre-listening activities, limiting pre-listening work, ideas for pre-listening activities, pre-listening as an integral part of listening work, and how pre-listening features in integrated skills work.

Pre- listening work can consist of a whole range of activities, including:

1. The teacher giving background information;

2. The students reading something relevant;

3. The students looking at pictures;

4. Discussion of the topic/situation;

5. Question and answer session;

6. Written exercise;

7. Following the instructions for the while-listening activities;

8. Consideration of how the while-listening activity will be done.

Each of these activities helps to brainstorm on the topic and to narrow down the things that the students expect to hear. Moreover, it aims to activate relevant prior knowledge and already known language.

2.3.4.2 The While-listening Stage

The while-listening stage is an important aspect in order to help learners understand and practice the task. An English teacher has to understand some information such as the purpose of while-listening activities, the nature of while-

listening activities, factors which effect the choice of while-listening activities, ideas for while-listening activities, the importance of immediate feedback, and teacher talk.

The teacher who has checked through the actual listening text in advance (preferably by listening to it, not just by reading through the transcript) will have used the pre-listening stage to introduce any lexis or expressions which the students are not familiar with or need reminding about, so that the chances of everyone succeeding with the task will be enhanced.

2.3.4.3 The Post-listening Stage

Post-listening activities embrace all the work related to a particular listening text (whether recorded or spoken by the teacher), which are done after the listening completion. Some post-listening activities are extensions of the work done at the pre-listening and while-listening stages and some relate only loosely to the listening text itself.

The most common form of post-listening activities has, in the past, been the answering of multiple-choice questions or 'open' questions based on a spoken text (often, in fact, a piece of prose which was meant to be read silently, not to be spoken aloud).

Post-listening activities can be much longer than while-listening activities because at this stage the students have time to think, to discuss, to write. Activities, which go further than merely checking comprehension, need to have a purpose of their own. If the pre-listening stage has built up expectations in the listeners, and the while listening stage has to satisfy these expectations, it is hard to sustain interest at the post-listening stage unless the post-listening activity is intrinsically motivating. For this reason, the teacher needs to find something more

interesting than comprehension questions and 'Find the word which means…'

exercises for students to do.

2.3.5 How to Evaluate Listening Skills

According to Farrington (2008), two aspects to communicating:

receiving and sending messages. If you are a good listener, you have to follow these

questions: Do you have a tendency to interrupt or finish other people's sentences? Do

you find yourself losing patience or concentration?. Furthermore, a good listener need

to work on his/her listening skills in order to show that he/she is listening by nodding

and asking some questions.

2.4 Speaking

2.4.1 Definition of Speaking

According to Oxford Dictionaries defines "Speaking is the action of

conveying information or expressing one's feeling in speech". Speaking is the

productive oral skill. It consists of producing systematic verbal utterance to convey

meaning. Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves

producing and receiving and processing information (Brown. 1994; Burns & Joyce,

1997). Speaking requires learners not only know how to produce specific points of

language such as grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary, they also can understand

when, why, and in what ways to produce language. In addition, speech has its own

skills, structures, and conventions different from written language (Burns & Joyce.

1997; Carter & McCarthy. 1995). Furthermore, speaking in the early 1970s usually

presented "repeating after the teacher, reciting a memorized dialogue, or responding to a mechanical drill" (Shrum & Glisan. 2000 : 26).

2.4.2 Functions of Speaking

Brown and Yule (1983) made a useful distinction between the interactional functions of speaking and the transactional function. Brown and Yule's framework (Jones. 1996 and Burns. 1998) introduce three types of talking such as talk as interaction, talk as transaction and talk as performance.

2.4.2.1 Talk as interaction

Talk as interaction means by "conversation' and describes interaction which serves a primary social function. When people meet, they exchange greetings, engage in small talk and chitchat, recount recent experiences and so on because they wish to be friendly and to establish a comfortable zone of interaction with others. The focus is more on the speakers, and how they wish to present themselves to each other than on the message. Such exchange may be either casual or more formal depending on the circumstances, and their nature has been well described (Brown and Yule. 1983). The main features of talk as interaction can be summarized as follows:

1. It has a primary social function.

2. It reflects relationship roles.

3. It reflects speaker's identity.

4. It may be formal or casual.

5. It uses conversational conventions.

6. It reflects degrees of politeness.

7. It employs many generic words.

8. It uses conversational register

9. It jointly constructs.

10. It involves opening and closing conversation.

11. It can choose topics.

Making small-talk

1. Recounting personal incidents and experiences

2. Turn-taking

3. Using adjacency-pair

4. Interrupting

5. Reacting to others

2.4.2.2 Talk as transaction

Talk as transaction refers to situations where the focus is on what is said or done. The message is the central focus here and making oneself understood clearly and accurately, rather than the participants and how they interact socially with each other. There are two different types of talk as transaction. One is a situation where the focus is on giving and receiving information and where the participants focus primarily on what is said or achieved, and accuracy may not be a priority as long as information is successfully communicated and understood. And another type is to focus on obtaining goods or services such as s checking into a hotel, buying something in the market, ordering food in the restaurant, asking someone for directions on the street, making a telephone call, etc.

The main features of talk as transaction are:

1. It has a primarily informational focus.

2. The main focus is the message, not the participants.

3. Participants employ communication strategies to make themseves understood.

4. There may be frequent questions, repetitions, and comprehension checks.

5. There may be negotiation and digression.

6. Linguistic accuracy is not always important.

Some of the skills involved in using talk for transaction are:

1. Explaining a need or intention

2. Describing something

3. Asking questions

4. Confirming information

5. Justifying an opinion

6. Making suggestions

7. Clarifying understanding

8. Making comparison

2.4.2.3 Talk as Performance

Talk as performance refers to public speaking, which transmits information before an audience such as public announcement, and speeches, etc. Talk as performance tends to be in the form of a monolog rather than dialog. There are some examples of talk as performance such as: giving a class report about a school

trip, conducting a class debate, giving a welcome speech, making a sales presentation, giving a lecture and so on.

The main features of talk as performance are:

1. There is a focus on both message and audience.

2. It reflects organization and sequencing.

3. Form and accuracy are important.

4. Language is more like written language.

5. It is often in the form of a monolog.

Some of the skills involved in using talk as performance are:

6. Using an appropriate format

7. Presenting information in an appropriate sequence

8. Using correct pronunciation and grammar

9. Creating an effect on the audience

10. Using appropriate vocabulary

11. Using appropriate opening and close

2.4.3 How to Evaluate Speaking Ability

The Finnish Nation Certificate scale (National Board of Education. 2002) is a holistic scale with six levels as follows.

Table 2.3

The National Certificate Descriptive Scale

Score	Criteria
6	Speaks fluently with few if any non-native features, such as a foreign accent. Is capable of expressing even subtle nuances of meaning with precision, and also makes varied and appropriate use of idiomatic expressions.
5	Speaks fluently without frequent obvious need to search for an expression. Delivery characterized by naturalness, coherence and appropriate length. Is able to present a clear and detailed description of even a complex topic. Can use idiomatic expressions and everyday expressions, and is able to express nuances fairly well.
4	Copes fairly well even in less familiar speech situations. Make a distinction between formal and informal language, at least to some extent. Is able to present and justify an opinion comprehensibly. Is able to talk about and describe sights, sound s and experiences.

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Score	Criteria
3	Copes with the most familiar speech situations and is able to take the initiative in everyday language-use situations. Speech may be quite slow but there are few unnatural pauses. Is comprehensible despite transferring native or foreign language structures and vocabulary to the target language. Pronunciation may clearly deviate from target language standards.
2	Copes with routine speaking situations that require a simple exchange of information. Nevertheless, the speaker's language proficiency considerably restricts the range of matters that can be dealt with. Successful communication of a message presupposes that the interlocutor is willing to help the speaker in forming the message. Pronunciation may deviate clearly from the target language norm, thus requiring special effort from the interlocutor and impeding successful communication.
1	Is easy to ask and reply to simple questions dealing with immediate everyday needs. Can make use of simple polite forms. Copes with the very simplest speaking tasks, but communication is slow and very fragmented. Often obliged to resort to nonverbal means in order to be understood.

Source: National Board of Education (2002)

The Test of Spoken English (TSE) scale is a combination of holistic and analytic rating scales. Analytic scale contains a number of criteria, usually 3-5, each

Table 2.4

The Test of Spoken English rating scale

Rating	Criteria
60	**Communication almost always effective: task performed very competently.**
	Functions generally performed clearly and effectively
	Generally appropriate response to audience/situation
	Coherent, with some effective use to cohesive devices.
50	**Communication generally effective: task performed competently.**
	Functions generally performed clearly and effectively
	Generally appropriate response to audience/situation
	Coherent, with some effective use to cohesive devices
	Use of linguistic features generally effective; communication generally not affected by errors
40	**Communication somewhat effective: task performed somewhat competently.**
	Functions generally performed clearly and effectively
	Somewhat appropriate response to audience/situation
	Somewhat coherent, with some use of cohesive devices
	Use of linguistic features somewhat effective; communication sometimes affected by errors.

Table 2.4 (Continued)

Rating	Criteria
30	**Communication generally not effective: task generally performed poorly.**
	Functions generally performed unclearly and ineffectively
	Generally inappropriate response to audience/situation
	Generally incoherent, with little use of cohesive devices
	Use of linguistic features generally poor; communication often impeded.
20	**No effective communication: no evidence of ability to**
	No evidence that functions were performed
	No evidence of ability to respond to audience/situation
	Incoherent, with no use of cohesive devices.

Source: ETS (2001 : 29)

There are five main parts to evaluate speaking ability namely comprehension, vocabulary, grammar, fluency and pronunciation. (Harris. 1986). The grading criteria consists five levels as follows:

5 = Excellent: very smooth and natural conversation, quite appropriate and relevant exchanges from the beginning to the end, and grammatical structures of polite requests and responses.

4 = Very good: quite smooth and natural conversation, quite appropriate and relevant exchanges from the beginning to the end with few structure use errors of polite requests and responses.

3 = Good: fairly smooth and natural conversation with some inappropriate and irrelevant exchanges and some grammatical errors in structures of polite requests and responses.

2 = Fair: not so smooth and no so natural conversation, inappropriate use and relevant exchanges, and structures use error of polite requests and response often occur in the conversation.

1 = Poor: very poor control of the structure of polite requests and responses, not smooth and not natural, many inappropriate and not relevant exchange.

Table 2.5

Criteria of Harris' Scoring

Rating	Criteria
	Comprehension
5	Understand everything without difficulty.
4	Understand nearly everything at normal speech, although occasional repetition may be necessary.
3	Understand most of is said al slow than normal speed with repetitions.
2	Has great difficulty following what is said.
1	Cannot be said to understand even simple conversation.

Source: Harris (1986)

2.5 Relationship between Speaking and Listening Abilities

According to Anderson and Lynch (1998), for the L2 learners to be good at conversation, they required to get practiced both speaking and listening. Then they need to use them into the conversation, because these two skills are mutually supporting. However, some teachers and course writers ignore interdependence of these two skills for the L2 learners to develop their conversation capacity. In a traditional method, the L2 learners get practiced listening and speaking skills separately. Teacher has them to practice listening first, and then to follow by speaking. By this way, the learners seem not to be encouraged to interact with input information, since they do not have to respond orally when they hear speakers say.

The tasks that are found necessary to develop the L2 learners' listening skills are those engage with listening and speaking skills. The communication experiments show that between learners who are experimented in the interdependent listening-speaking setting and who are experiment in separated listening-speaking setting; the most effective speakers are those who engaged in the interdependent listening and speaking setting (Anderson, Brown & Yule. 1984).

Between the children and the full effective speakers, the children are less than the full effective speakers in terms of their own language; perhaps they are not satisfied with the listener's point of view. The young listeners have problem in pointing out problems, which does not make sense in communication. This makes the communication worse. However, the two children of experiment (one acting as speaker, the another as the listener) could continue their communication task even the speaker gave poor instructions during the communication task. So, there is a clear interdependence between listening and speaking.

Similar problems among the teenagers recorded by Brown, Anderson, Shabolt and Lynch (1987) in their research of L1 communication show in paired task engaging giving and following instruction for making a rout on a map. Some speakers performed quite poorly with unclear instruction, but the listeners ignore asking for clearer information from their partners, which caused unsuccessful communication. So, this points out that speaking and listening combination is very important for developing communication skills.

2.6 Authentic Materials

2.6.1 Definitions of Authentic Materials

Authentic materials are language data produced for real life communication purposes, and they may contain false starts and incomplete sentences. They are useful for improving the communicative aspects of the language.

Nunan (1989; as cited in Macdonald, Badger & White. 2000) states that authentic materials are any materials which have not been specifically produced for the purpose of language teaching. Also, Bacon and Finnemann (1990) define authentic materials the texts produced by native speakers for a non-pedagogical purpose. Stempleski (1987) states that, a rich and exciting source of video software for EFL/ESL classes is authentic materials. Authentic video material, especially that which represents what goes on in a non ELT environment, designed for its entertaining value rather than language teaching, is a rich and exciting source of video software for instruction is an English as a second language (ESL) classroom.

2.6.2 Types of Authentic Materials

Many researchers have divided the authentic materials into many types. For example, Miller (2003) states that some useful authentic materials that teachers can use in EFL classroom such as newspapers and magazines, radio, television/video, Internet and so on. In addition, Hedge (2000) and Baird (2004) give some examples of authentic materials which divide them into two categories: 1) Spoken: TV commercials, films, news items, weather forecasts, airport and station announcement, radio talks, interviews, and debates. 2) Written: recipes, articles, bus timetables, advertisements, tourism brochures, poems, song lyrics, application forms, and instruction for use of equipment, etc. However, Genhard (1996) proposes three categories of authentic materials, which can be used them in language classroom as follows:

2.6.2.1 Authentic listening-viewing materials: TV commercials, cartoons, news clips, comedy shows, movies, soap operas, songs, radio ads, documentaries, quiz shows, sales pitches, professionally audio-taped short stories and novels.

2.6.2.2 Authentic visual materials: pictures from magazine and newspaper, postcard pictures, picture books, stamps, photographs, paintings, stick-figure drawings, wordless street signs, children' artwork, silhouettes, and slides.

2.6.2.3 Authentic printed materials: newspaper articles, movie advertisements, sports reports, advice columns, lyrics to songs, restaurant menus, street signs, telephone books, maps, TV guides, comic books, greeting cards, grocery coupons, bus schedules, cereal boxes, candy wrappers, tourist information brochures, etc.

To sum up, authentic materials play an important role for EFL learners. Also, they are language information produced for real life communication by native

speakers. EFL teachers can use a variety of authentic materials in the lessons and select appropriate ones that match to students' English proficiency.

2.6.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Authentic Materials

2.6.3.1 Advantages for using authentic materials

The advantage of using authentic materials included:

1. Authentic materials have a positive effect on learner motivation. They provide authentic culture information. They also help language learners to exposure to real language (Clarke. 1989).

2. Authenticity is felt to be significant because it offers learners a sense of the real world, a chance to rehearse in a protected situation, hence the less authentic materials language teachers use, the less preparation learners will make for the real world (McGrath. 2002).

3. Authentic materials relate more closely to learners' needs and interests. They can support a more creative approach to teaching. Also, authentic materials are continuous updated (Kilickaya. 2004; Mcknight. 1995; Wong, Kwok. & Choi. 1995; Berado. 2006).

4. Newman and Wehlage (1993) state that one way to achieve better understanding of foreign language is to establish an authentic learning environment and to use authentic materials in classroom. The more there is a relationship with the real world where students live, the more a lesson gains authenticity.

5. There are some reasons to use authentic materials in EFL classroom: Authentic materials have a positive effect on learners' motivation and learning process (Berado. 2006; Guarento & Morley. 2001).

6. They provide exposure to real language, and they relate more closely to learners' needs. They support a more creative approach to teaching (Clarke. 1989 ; Peacock. 1997). Therefore, authentic materials provide valuable support (creative approach to teaching) and could be used for a special designed curriculum. They are a bridge between the classroom and the real world (Peacock. 1997).

7. Authentic materials lower the degree of anxiety when students faced new situations in the target language (Moya. 2000).

8. Authentic materials "1) give the students the opportunity to practice English, 2) help the students gain confidence in their English ability, 3) expose the students to cultural differences and customs, and 4) help the students develop their ability to find pertinent information quickly" (Kelly, Offner & Vorland. 2002 : 12).

9. Authentic materials are realistic, ready-to-use, relevant, and triggered the process of natural language acquisition for students (Hwang. 2005).

10. Advanced students enjoy authentic materials (Chavez. 1994).

2.6.3.2 Disadvantages of Using Authentic Materials

Authentic materials often contain difficult language, unneeded vocabulary items and complex language structures, which causes a burden for the teacher in lower-level classes and demotivate lower level students (Berardo. 2006). They may be too culturally biased (Wardman. 2009). Many structures are mixed in such materials; causing lower levels have a hard time decoding the texts. Therefore, authentic materials may not expose students to comprehensible input at the earliest

stages of acquisition and the use of authentic materials is time consuming for the

teachers (Guariento & Morley. 2001; Martinez. 2002; Kim. 2000).

2.6.4 How to Select Authentic Materials

There are several factors to consider in the selection of authentic

materials with are appropriate for second language learners. Breen (1985) suggests

that there are four factors, which involve in establishing text and learner authenticity.

For example, what is an authentic text? For whom is the text authentic? For what

purpose authentic? and what is authentic to the social situation of the classroom?.

Therefore, it is clear that requiring knowledge of format and probable content is part

of the cultural boundary crossing. Tasks can be chosen to involve learners. Not only in

authentic communication with texts and others in the classroom are used, but also the

purpose of learning need to be mentioned (Porter & Robert. 1981). According to Lee

(1995), the task design stage should be considered in four aspects: 1) contents have to

be provided tasks, 2) the task content should be related to the authentic materials, 3)

the task is used as pre-activity, practice activity and post-activity, and 4) the task

should be real-life communication situations.

In conclusion, even through English teachers can use many interesting

authentic materials in an EFL class, some low level students may face some

difficulties during learning from authentic materials. For instance, there are many

complex structures, which are mixed. Those materials may not expose learners to

comprehensible input at the earliest stage. So, EFL teachers should select appropriate

materials to meet the needs of students and to help them develop their listening and

speaking abilities effectively.

2.6.5 Implementing Authentic Materials in EFL Classroom

The main function of the second-language classroom should provide learners with authentic language (Ciccone. 1995). According to Herron (1994), empirical studies have confirmed the benefits of using authentic materials in classroom. Gilman and Moody (1984) suggest that the teacher can employ authentic materials in implementing listening-comprehension training at all levels. Morrison (1989) also believes that authentic listening materials can be used at all levels from beginners to advanced. Even beginning students need exposure to authentic language, since it is the medium of everyday communication (Oxford, Lavine. & Crookall. 1989; Porter & Roberts. 1981; Scarcella & Oxford. 1992). According to Herron and Seay (1991), the teacher should exploit more authentic texts in all levels of language instruction in order to involve students in activities that reflect to their real-life listening.

2.7 Satisfaction

2.7.1 Definition of Satisfaction

First of all, it is necessary to define the notion of satisfaction and especially student's satisfaction. Satisfaction- a fulfilment of need or desire, the pleasure obtained by such fulfilment.

Oliver and Richard. (1980: 482) define "satisfaction as" a post choice evaluation judgment concerning a specific purchase decision, on the other way it can be approximated by the equation: satisfaction-perception of performance-expectations".

Giese and Cote. (2000 : 3) "satisfaction" is a summary, effective and variable intensity response centered on specific aspects of acquisition and which takes place at the precise moment when the individual evaluates the objectives".

Zeithaml et al. (1990) define satisfaction as an overall judgment, perception or attitude on the superiority of service. The judgment is based on the discrepancy between expectations and actual experiences of customer.

Grossman (1999) states that students could be treat like a customer or a client within the college and in that case, the college serve the students on a better priority to fulfil their expectations and needs.

Elliot and Healy (2001) define the student satisfaction is a short-term attitude, derived from the evaluation of the received education service.

Saengchai (2000 : 11) shows that "satisfaction of performance is feeling that performers have attitude toward performance. This feeling will motivate them to focus on their work and love to do it. Furthermore, they are willing to do and try to find the effective performance process that helps them perform well."

Also Chanpreecharat (2000 : 52) states that satisfaction is "person's feeling toward positive performance namely love, favour, satisfy, and a positive attitude to work which occur from need response."

Khinna (2003 : 29) claims that "satisfaction to performance is the performers' thinking or attitude toward their performance including process, components, and factors of work." If the result shows positive performance, it presents good satisfaction toward performance. They will devote labour, spirit, money and wisdom to work a lot. In contrast, if performers have negative feeling, it indicates negative satisfaction toward performance. Therefore, administrator supports

satisfaction of performance in order to motivate the performers showing their happiness and achievement.

In conclusion, satisfaction is one's feeling toward something what he does and it also occurs in mind and effects to the action. Many researchers have conducted the research about satisfaction and motivation of the students toward using authentic materials.

2.8 Efficiency

2.8.1 Definition of Efficiency

Efficiency of lessons refers to the quality of the lessons by using authentic materials that are created in a variety of contents about hospitality industry. The content of the lesson helps and instructs student's learning efficiently (Phromwong

et. al. 1977).

2.8.2 How to Find out the Efficiency of the Lessons by Empirical Approach

The content of the lesson is tried out with the participants who are selected as samples in this study. Most of the lessons are calculated in percentage of exercise, and learning process (Kitrakarn. 2002). There are two numeric values as follows: $E_1/E_2 = 80/80$, $E_1/E_2 = 85/85$ or $E_1/E_2 = 90/90$.

$E_1/E_2 = 80/80$ has shown different criteria of calculating. The first criteria set 80 means the efficiency of the process, which calculates in percentage of learners' mean scores from exercise scores in the lessons. The second criteria set 80 means the

efficiency of the outcome, which is percentage of learners' total scores from achievement test (Post-test). The statistical formulas present as follows.

$$E_1 = \frac{\frac{\sum X}{N}}{A} \times 100$$

E_1 = Efficiency of the Process

$\sum X$ = Total Scores of Post-test

N = Number of Samples

A = Total Score of the Exercises in the Lessons

$$E_2 = \frac{\frac{\sum F}{N}}{B} \times 100$$

E_2 = Efficiency of the Outcomes

$\sum F$ = Total Score of Students who pass the Post-test

N = Number of Samples

B = Total score of the Post-test in the Lessons

The standard for the lessons' efficiency should be no less than 75/75, 80/80, 85/85 or 90/90 depending on the contents of the subject. 75/75 relates to skill or learners' attitude, and 80/80, 85/85 or 90/90 is about the subjects related to cognition. The level of error is accepted at 2.5%.

The lessons' efficiency refers to the level of the lessons, which employed in the classroom activities in order to help students' learning. In addition, it can lead students' satisfaction to a teacher who teaches them.

Srisa-ard (2002) states that the development of teaching and learning is unavoidable to use the trial and to find the efficiency of the lessons. Finding the

efficiency, the criterion usually uses 80/80 which consists into two approaches as follows:

1. The most students (80%) who can have learning outcomes at a high level (80%). In this situation the innovation would use less time in teaching only one content. The criterion 80/80 refers to the number of students no less than 80% of students who score at least 80% of the total scores.

2. At the end of the procedure, which is in high level (80%). In this case of teaching would include a lot of contents. The criterion 80/80 has the meanings, namely, the first criterion set 80 is the efficiency of the process (E_1), and the second criterion set 80 is the efficiency of the overall effect (E_2).

Srisa-ard (2002) introduces the concepts of determining the criterion as follows: 90/90 refers to a high efficiency that a research can set it by himself, but it would have problems that the efficiency can not be achieved the goal. It is not easy for students to get average of 90%. Therefore, the criterion set 90/90 is not determined in most research. It is accepted to set lower than 80 in both the process and the outcome. The criterion set 70/70 means the teaching materials developed is effective and it can be used for most students in order to improve their learning in high levels. The criterion set 50/50 or 60/60 shows that the students can improve their average score on one half or more than 60%.

The criterion set 80/80 is not interpreted by the comparison. The criterion 80% is the overall process and results. The 80/80 separates the efficiency of the process. The researcher can set two parts, which does not equal as the criterion set 70/80. 70% means that the efficiency of the process and 80% means the overall efficiency.

2.9 Previous Studies Related to the Present Investigation

Thanajaro (2000) conducted research using authentic materials to develop listening comprehension in the English as a second language classroom. This study had two main purposes: 1) to examine the influence of authentic materials on listening ability in students who studied English as a second language in the high intermediate academic listening and vocabulary development class at a language training center and 2) to identify the learning strategies used by ESL students experiencing authentic listening texts and to determine the influences of authentic materials on ESL students' attitudes toward learning English. The data collection used interviews, questionnaires, and class observations. Results showed a statistically significant improvement in listening ability of the EFL students.

Rattanawon (2003) studied the effectiveness of self-created role-plays on speaking skill. The purpose of this study was to investigate whether self-created dialogues of role-play were helpful in promoting the learning expressions. The samples of this study were 12 Math – Science program students studying in Mattayomsuksa 6 in the first semester of academic year 2002 at Kanthalawittaya School, Kanthala District, Sisaket Province, Thailand. The instrument used to collect data were pre-and post-speaking tests which focused on evaluating fluency, accuracy and context- appropriateness of the use of expressions having been studied. The results of the study were as follows: 1) The self-created dialogues of role-play could promote fluency at the significant level of 0.05, 2) The self- created dialogues of role-plays could promot appropriate use of expressions at the significant level of 0.01. 3) The self-created dialogues of role-plays could not promote grammatical accuracy of expression.

Vejchasarn (2007) examined the effectiveness of using English for tourism to improve high school students' listening and speaking proficiency. 20 students were Mattayom 5-6 students in Nayia Suksa Ratchamangkalapisek school, Nayia District, Ubon Ratchthani Province. The instruments used to collect data were the pre- and post listening tests and also the speaking observation form which focused on fluency, appropriateness of uses of expression and grammatical accuracy. On the other hand, the findings indicated that students' listening skill was rated at good level. It was found that students' proficiency in speaking skill was rated as fair and poor level.

Rodngam (2010) studied the use of authentic materials to enhance vocabulary for listening comprehension of Mathayomsuksa 6 students in the English and Japanese program at Winitsuksa, Lopburi Province, Thailand. This study aimed at investigating the use of authentic materials to enhance vocabulary for listening comprehension and studying the influences of authentic materials on students' attitudes towards learning English vocabulary for listening comprehension. This study was conducted with 45 high-school students who were taking a listening and speaking class during semester 2/2010 and studying in the English and Japanese Program at Winitsuksa, Lopburi Province, Thailand. It was found that the use of authentic material had a positive effect and helped increase students' performances, comfort and self-confident when listening language. Responses to a questionnaire revealed that the influence of the use of authentic materials had a positive effect on students' attitude and motivation to learn the language.

Saiwaew (2010) studied the use of authentic materials to develop English listening comprehension with 35 first year students' non- English majors of Ubon Ratchathani Rajabhat University by using the simple random sampling technique. The

experiment of using authentic materials employed into three stages: 1) difficulty of the research instrument (p) and discrimination power of the research instruments (d), 2) ability based test (pre-test and post-test of listening comprehension), and 3) listening comprehension exercises. The result of post-test was higher than pre-test with statistical significance at the 0.05 level and the students' listening comprehension by using the authentic materials was significantly increased.

Hsu (2011) examined the effect of YouTube (video clips) on vocabulary use in writing by 101 Taiwanese students in I-Shou University, Taiwan. The result showed that there was a higher percentage of vocabulary use in their writing after employing video clips.

Ghaderpanahi (2012) researched using authentic aural materials to develop listening comprehension in the EFL classroom. The purpose of this study was to investigate the influences of authentic aural materials on listening capacity of thirty female undergraduate psychology majors English in Al-Zahra University. Interviews, questionnaire and pre-test and post-test employed in the data collection. The results found that the use of authentic materials in the EFL classroom had positive effect on ESL students' motivation to learn the language and students' post-test was better than pre-test.

Sabet (2012) investigated the impact of authentic materials on elementary EFL learners' listening skills. Sixty students of Guilan University participated in experimental groups and control groups. Analysis of quantitative study and comparing the mean scores of two groups via t-test indicated that students who were exposed to authentic materials performed better in their posttest. The result of this survey

research in Iranian Elementary students showed positive attitudes toward using authentic materials.

Ismaili (2012) conducted a study on the effectiveness of using movies in the EFL classroom. The study was conducted on a sample of two groups: an experimental and a control group taught conventionally. The study was carried out at the South East European University in the academic year 2011/2012. The participants in this study were pre-intermediate and intermediate level of students, aged 18-25. The results of the study revealed significant differences between experimental and control group of students on integrated skills, using video incorporated in the teaching material. It also revealed its effects on developing students listening and communication skill. The study concluded that movies attract students' attention, present language in a more natural way that found in course-books. This is because movies offer a visual context aids which help students understanding and improve their learning skills.

Barekat and Nobakhti (2014) studied the effect of authentic and inauthentic materials in cultural awareness training on EFL Learners' listening comprehension ability with intermediate level students by using randomly into two equal groups, the control and experimental groups. Test scores in pre- and post-test were compared. Using SPSS, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the results revealed that listening ability of learners in the experimental group had improved better than the learners in the control group.

2.10 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has presented the details of learning and teaching English at Savannakhet Teacher Training College, Laos, the language of hospitality industry, listening, speaking, using authentic materials in EFL class, efficiency, and some samples of previous studies from different scholars who are interested in using authentic material to improve EFL learners' listening and speaking skills in EFL class. The next chapter is devoted to the research methodology.