

**People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research**

**University of 8 May 1945 / Guelma
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department Letters and English Language**

**جامعة 8 ماي 1945 / قالمة
كلية الآداب و اللغات
قسم الادب و اللغة الإنجليزية**



OPTION: LINGUISTICS

**Effect of (Non) Native English Accents on Students' Listening
Comprehension: Case Study of Second Year Students of English at 08
MAI 1945 University - Guelma**

**A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Letter and English Language in Partial
Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Master Degree in Language and Culture**

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June 2025

DEDICATION

In the Name of Allah, the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful.
All praise is due to Him alone, the Sustainer of the entire world.

I dedicate this work to my parents, Jahida and Salah. Because of their unwavering love, endless patience, and countless sacrifices, to become the person I am today. Thank you for believing in me, praying for me, and supporting me along the way. Your hard work and strong moral values have guided me to this success.

To my lovely sisters Fthya, Amal, Rahima, and Souhila I am deeply grateful for your constant love, support, and inspiration. You have been a steady reminder that I am never alone, and you have helped me through difficult times with your encouragement and kind words. You are my refuge, and for that, I will always be thankful.

To my beloved brothers Farid, Nacer, Nawri, and Yazid thank you for always cheering me on and believing in my potential.

Izdihar

DEDICATION 2

To myself

For the strength I built in me, the resilience I carried through every challenge, and the small hope that I could make it, even when the road was lonely.

I have been my own source of light, and for that, I am deeply proud.

To my dear mother

Though you are no longer with me, your love continues to guide me. This achievement is a part of you, and I carry it in your name.

With heartfelt gratitude, I also dedicate this work to those who stood by my side:

To my uncle Amar, whose support never failed me.

To my sister Fatma and my brother Badis, for their care and encouragement.

To my twin siblings, Sara and Abdelkader, for always bringing warmth to my days.

And to my best friend Aya who stood in the rain with me when she had the choice to be dry

Thank you all for walking this journey with me.

Imen

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, we would like to thank Allah for blessing us and guiding us to complete this journey.

We would like to express our most sincere and deepest gratitude to our supervisor, Mr. Mohammed Walid Chettibi, for his efforts and patience.

We are also very grateful to the students of English of Foreign Language– University of Guelma – who helped us to fulfill the practical part of this research by answering the questionnaire.

We extend our heartfelt thanks to the honorable jury members, Mrs. MAAFA Soumia and Mrs. CHEKKAT Ilhem, for accepting to evaluate our work and for their valuable time and feedback.

Last but not least, we thank our families and friends for their love and support.

ABSTRACT

Listening comprehension plays a key role in successful language learning, especially in understanding spoken English in various accents. In this regard, both native and non-native English accents may influence learners' ability to comprehend spoken language. This study aims to explore second-year EFL students' attitudes toward native and non-native English accents and examine how these accents influence their listening comprehension. A descriptive quantitative method was adopted to conduct the investigation. Data were collected through a questionnaire administered to 150 second-year students at the Department of English at 8 Mai 1945 University – Guelma; however, only 90 students completed the questionnaire. The results revealed that non-native accents initially presented more challenges, but regular exposure contributed to improved comprehension. Furthermore, students generally expressed positive attitudes toward listening to different English accents.

Keywords: Attitudes, Native Accents, Non-Native Accents, Listening Comprehension, EFL Students.

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BBC: British broadcasting corporation

BUP: Bottom-up process

CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

CNN: Cable news network

EFL: English as foreign language

ESL: English as a second language

ICT: Information and Communication Technology tools

L1: First language/native language

L2: Second language

RP: Received Pronunciation

TDP: Top-down process

UK: United Kingdom

US: United States

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 3.1.1 Participants' gender.....	57
Table 2 3.1.2 Participants' Age.....	58
Table 3 3.1.3 Students' native language.	58
Table 4 3.1.4 English language duration of study among participants.....	59
Table 5 3.1.5 A. frequency of listening to English spoken by native speakers.	60
Table 6 3.1.6 Frequency Of listening To English Spoken By Non-Native Speakers.	60
Table 7 3.1.7 Familiarity With Native English Accents Outside The classroom.	61
Table 8 3.1.8 Exposure To Non-Native Accents Beyond The Classroom.	62
Table 9 3.1.9 Participants' Criteria To Identify Non Native Accent.	64
Table 10 3.1.10 Participants' Perceptions Of Accents Comprehensibility.	66
Table 11 3.1.11 Classroom Exposure To Non-Native English Accents From Other Sources Than The Teacher.	67
Table 12 3.1.12 Frequency Of Exposure To Non-Native English Accents Through Digital And Media Platforms.	68
Table 13 3.1.13 Teachers' Intentional Use Of Non-Native Accents English Accent Other Than His/Her Accent.	69
Table 14 3.1.14 Courses In Which Students Are Exposed To Non-Native English Accent.....	69
Table 15 3.1.15 Listening Materials In Which Non-Native English Accent Used By The Teacher.....	70
Table 16 3.1.16 Teachers' Intentional Use Of Native Accents English Accent Other Than His/Her Accent.	71
Table 17 3.1.17 Courses In Which Students Are Exposed To Non-Native English Accent.....	71
Table 18 3.1.18 Listening Materials In Which Non-Native English Accent Used By The Teacher.....	72
Table 19 3.1.19 Participants Reactions Towards Listening To Non-Native English	73
Table 20 3.1.20 Strategies used by participants to overcome accent difficulties.	74
Table 21 3.1.21 Participants anxiety towards listening to unfamiliar accent.	75
Table 22 3.1.21 Self-rate of listening comprehension ability.	76
Table 23 3.1.22 Strategies to Improve Listening Comprehension.	77
Table 24 3.1.23 Listening Processes Used	78
Table 25 3.1.24 Problems Faced While Listening	80
Table 26 3.1.25 Learning Strategies During Listening (1).....	82
Table 27 3.1.26 Learning Strategies During Listening (2)	83
Table 28 3.1.27 Learning Strategies During Listening (2).....	85
Table 29 3.1.28 Learning Strategies During Listening (3).....	87
Table 30 3.1.29 Types of Comprehension Exercises/Speech Varieties	88
Table 31 3.1.30 Instructions Followed Before Listening.	90
Table 32 3.1.31 Instructions Followed While Listening.	91
Table 33 3.1.32 Instructions Followed After Listening	92
Table 34 3.1.33 Types of Listening Focused by the Teacher	94
Table 35 3.1.34 Teachers Roles While Listening	96

Table 36 3.1.35 Confidence in Understanding Speakers.....	98
Table 37 3.1.36 Effect of Native Accent on Listening Comprehension.....	98
Table 38 3.1.37Effect of Non-Native Accent on Listening Comprehension.....	99
Table 39 3.1.38 Native Accents Exposure and Comprehension Improvement.....	100
Table 40 3.1.39 Non-Native Accents Exposure and ComprehensionImprovement.....	100
Table 41 3.1.40 Importance of Practicing Listening to Native accents.....	101
Table 42 3.1.41 Importance of Practicing Listening to Non-Native accents	101
Table 43 3.1.42 Difficulties Understanding Certain Accents	103
Table 44 3.1.43 Accents Found difficult Inunstanding By Participants	103
Table 45 3.1.45 Linguistic Features Hindering Comprehension.....	105
Table 46 3.1.46 Strategies Used To Improve Listening Comprehension Across Listening ...	106
Table 47 3.1.47 Accents Easier in Listening Tests	108
Table 48 Table 3.48 The Effect of Accent Exposure on Listening Anxiety	109

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 01: Interaction Between TDP & BUP Strategies in Language Processing	34
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CONTENTS

Dedication	i
dedication	I
acknowledgements	II
abstract	III
list of acronyms and abbreviations.....	IV
list of tables	V
list of figures.....	VII
general introduction.....	1
1. Statement of the problem	2
2. Aims of the study	2
3. Research questions.....	3
4. Research hypothesis.....	3
4. Research methodology and design	3
4.1. Population and sample of the study.....	3
4.2. Data gathering tools	4
5. Structure of the dissertation.....	4

chapter one

(non) native accents in language comprehension

introduction	12
1. Notion of language: natural, structural, functional, psychological, sociological, cultural, and non-verbal perspectives	12
1.2 introduction to (non) –native accents	15
1.2.1 overview of the concept of (non)-native accents	15
1.2.2 constituents of (non)-native accents	16
1.2.2.1 phonological factors	16
1.2.2.2. Sociolinguistic factors	17
1.3 linguistic features of (non)-native accents	17
1.3.1 phonological differences	18
1.3.2 intonation patterns	18
1.3.3 rhythm	19
1.3.4 speech rate	19
1.3.5 differences affecting intelligibility	20
1.3.6 difference between native and non-native speakers	21

1.4 impact of (non) -native accents on listening comprehension	21
1.4.1 challenges in comprehension	22
1.4.2 factors	22
1.4.2 listener's language proficiency	22
1.4.5 cognitive load	23
1.4.6 role of accent in comprehension difficulty	24
1.5 perceptions of (non) native accents	24
1.5.1 perception of different accents	24
1.5.6 familiarity	27
1.6 role of exposure to accents in language learning	27
1.6.1 importance of exposure to accents in learning	28
1.6.2 interaction with accents and listening comprehension	29
1.7 teaching listening skills with different accents	29
1.7.1 strategies for teaching listening comprehension	30
1.7.2 practical approaches and methods	32
conclusion	33

chapter two:

listening comprehension

introduction	39
2.1. Definition of listening comprehension	39
2.1.1 listening skill	39
2.1.2 listening comprehension	28
2.1.3. Listening sub-skills	30
2.1.4 importance of listening comprehension:	31
2.2 process of listening comprehension	32
2.2.1 bottom-up processing	32
2.2.2 top down process	33
figure 01: interaction between tdp & bup strategies in language processing	34
2.2.2.1 interactive process	34
2.3 stages of listening comprehension	35
2.3.1 pre-listening	35
2.3.2 while-listening	36
2.3.3 post listening	37
2.4 types of listening comprehension	38
2.4.1. Discriminative listening	38

2.4.2. Informative listening	38
2.4.3. Appreciative listening.....	38
2.4.4. Relational listening.....	39
2.4.5. Critical listening	39
2.4.6 sympathetic listening.....	39
2.4.7 therapeutic listening	39
2.4.8. Selective listening	39
2.4.9. Comprehensive listening:	40
2.4.10 extensive listening	40
2.4.11 intensive listening.....	40
2.5. Strategies of listening	41
2.5.1. Metacognitive strategies.....	41
2.5.2 cognitive strategies	42
2.5.3 socioaffective strategies	42
2.6 theories of listening	43
2.7 factors of listening comprehension	44
2.7.1 bottom-up factors	44
2.7.2 top-down factors.....	45
2.7.3 other factors.....	45
2.8 obvious problems of listening comprehension.....	46
2.8.1 less obvious l2 listening problems	47
2.9 teaching listening comprehension	47
2.9.1 bottom up.....	48
2.9.2 top down.....	50
conclusion.....	50

chapter three

field of investigation

introduction	53
3.1 students' questionnaire	53
3.1.1 population of the study	53
3.1.2 description of students' questionnaire	54
section one: general information (q1–q4)	54
section two: (non) native accents: (q5_q16)	54
section three: listening comprehension (q17_q25).....	55
section four: impact of (non)native accents on listening comprehension (q26_q34).....	55

3.1.3 administration of students'questionnaire:	56
3.1.4 data analysis and interpretations:	57
3.4.1.4analysis of results and findings from students' questionnaire:	57
section one: general information	57
section three: listening comprehension	76
conclusion.....	115
pedagogical implications.....	116
general conclution	119
references	121
appendix a	129
students' questionnaire	129
resume	145
الملخص	146

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

In foreign language, mastery of the four language skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing, is important for effective communication. Among all of these, the most important to acquire is listening, particularly in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) environment. It is a crucial function in language acquisition because it provides the learner with the input to process and use the language in study or real-life application. Listening comprehension is a cognitively demanding task which encompasses more than the simple reception of sound. Decoding, interpretation, and the construction of meaning from words are processes that occur, and these are subject to the influence of many variables, such as rate of delivery, speech quality, vocabulary, and accent. Given the interconnected nature of today's world, English is not just spoken by native speakers but also by increasingly large numbers of non-native speakers with different accents. It presents opportunities and challenges as well to EFL learners.

While non-native accents are secondary to native English accents such as American and British accents in language education, they are more prevalent in international communication, classrooms, digital media, and everyday life. Even so, listeners can find it difficult to understand the unfamiliar pattern of intonation, rhythm, or stress, especially where they are exposed to a few English accents within limited environments. These challenges can lead to listening comprehension difficulties, lower confidence, and even fear. Despite increasing sensitivity to English as an international language, empirical studies on how various accents native and non-native influence listening comprehension among EFL learners are limited. Most work has concentrated on the native-speaker model at the expense of actual-world diversity of English varieties in learners' language. It is thus worth studying the way students react and feel about different English accents and how these English accents influence their listening comprehension ability.

This research aims at determining the impact of native and non-native English accents on second-year English students' listening comprehension at the University of 8 Mai 1945 Guelma. The study explores exposure to other accents, attitude, difficulty felt, and strategies adopted by the students in order to enhance listening. Through the reflection on students' experiences and challenges, this study attempts to put into the limelight the imperative of more inclusive listening pedagogy that orients students towards the challenges of global communication.

1. Statement of The Problem

Listening comprehension is a vital skill in learning foreign language, as it is one of the most challenging skills for EFL students. What makes it more challenging is their exposure to different accents including the native and non-native accents. This difficulty may cause confusion, misunderstanding, anxiety or poor listening performance.

Despite the researches about the effect of different accents on listening comprehension, researches on how exactly native and non-native accents remains limited, it is still unknown whether students of EFL find native/non-native accents easier to understand.

2. Aims of the Study

This study's purpose is to investigate the effect of both native and non-native English accents on EFL learners' listening comprehension. Due to research that aims to identify accents learners are familiar with, which accents they find easier to understand, explore the challenges they face while listening and the strategies they use to enhance their listening comprehension skill.

3. Research Questions

1. How does exposure to native and non-native English accents affect second-year EFL students' listening comprehension?
2. Which type of English accents (native or non-native) easier for students to listen, and why?
3. What are the comprehension difficulties faced by students during listening to native compared to non-native English accents?
4. What are the adopted strategies by students to facilitate their listening comprehension when they are exposed to different accents?
5. How do students' perceptions of native and non-native accents influence their performance in listening comprehension?

4. Research Hypothesis

For testing the relationship between native/non-native accents and listening comprehension among EFL students, the following hypothesis is proposed:

- Null hypothesis (H_0): There is no significant difference in EFL students' listening comprehension when exposed to native and non-native English accents.
- Alternative hypothesis (H_1): There is significant difference in EFL students' listening comprehension when exposed to native and non-native English accents.

4. Research Methodology and Design

4.1. Population and Sample of the Study

Since this research investigates the influence of (non)-native accents on EFL students' listening comprehension, the case study was conducted with 90 second-year LMD students from the Department of Letters and English Language at the University of 8Mai 1945, Guelma.

The participants were purposefully chosen from the total population of second-year English students (150), based on their academic level and familiarity with listening comprehension activities. By their second year, these learners have had previous and consistent exposure to the main stages of listening (pre-, while-, and post-listening) and are better suited to assess the challenges posed by both native and nonnative English accents. The sample included both male and female students with varied levels of listening proficiency, making it representative of the broader student body.

4.2. DATA GATHERING TOOLS

In order to achieve the aims of the research, and test the proposed hypotheses, the current study followed a descriptive quantitative method in collecting the data collection. This method aims to describe, quantify, and interpret a particular phenomenon by collecting numerical data from a target population. In this study, a structured questionnaire was used as the main tool to collect data and to examine students' attitudes and experiences concerning the impact of (non)-native accents on listening comprehension. The questionnaire was administered to ninety (90) second-year LMD students from the Department of English at the University of 8 Mai 1945, Guelma. These participants were randomly selected from a total population of 150 students. The responses gave useful information that helped find patterns and make conclusions about the research questions.

5. STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION

This dissertation consists of three chapters; first two chapters are theoretical while the last one is practical. The first chapter focuses on “(Non)-Native Accents in Language Comprehension”, it brings by the introduction the notions of language and concept of language varieties including: idiolect, gelect, sociolect, accent and register which include the topic withing a sociolinguistic framework. Then, it explores the differences between native and non-

native accents while exploring their impact on listening comprehension, highlighting challenges in comprehension, factors. In addition, it covers learners' perceptions, the role of exposure to different accents, and teaching strategies that help improve listening skills in EFL contexts. The second chapter entitled "listening comprehension". In the opening of this chapter deals with general introduction followed by definition of listening comprehension, listening sub-skills and the importance of listening comprehension, moving to the process of listening comprehension which is composed of bottom up processing, and top down processing and the interactive process. After it deals with the stages of listening, types of listening comprehension/competencies and the theories of listening combined with its factors. The last two titles include the problems of listening (obvious and less obvious ones), teaching listening comprehension and conclusion. The last chapter presents the analysis of data collected through the students' questionnaire, which is designed to examine the effect of both native and non-native English accents on listening comprehension which reflects the purpose of this study. The questionnaire was administered second year LMD students of 8 Mai 1945 Guelma University. To address the research questions and test the hypotheses, the chapter also describes how the data were examined.

Chapter one
(non) native accents in language
comprehension

CHAPTER ONE

(NON) NATIVE ACCENTS IN LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION

introduction	12
1. Notion of language: natural, structural, functional, psychological, sociological, cultural, and non-verbal perspectives	12
1.2 introduction to (non) –native accents	15
1.2.1 overview of the concept of (non)-native accents	15
1.2.2 constituents of (non)-native accents	16
1.2.2.1 phonological factors	16
1.2.2.2. Sociolinguistic factors	17
1.3 linguistic features of (non)-native accents	17
1.3.1 phonological differences	18
1.3.2 intonation patterns	18
1.3.3 rhythm	19
1.3.4 speech rate	19
1.3.5 differences affecting intelligibility	20
1.3.6 difference between native and non-native speakers	21
1.4 impact of (non) -native accents on listening comprehension	21
1.4.1 challenges in comprehension	22
1.4.2 factors	22
1.4.2 listener's language proficiency	22
1.4.5 cognitive load	23
1.4.6 role of accent in comprehension difficulty	24
1.5 perceptions of (non) native accents	24
1.5.1 perception of different accents	24
1.5.6 familiarity	27
1.6 role of exposure to accents in language learning	27
1.6.1 importance of exposure to accents in learning	28
1.6.2 interaction with accents and listening comprehension	29
1.7 teaching listening skills with different accents.....	29
1.7.1 strategies for teaching listening comprehension	30
1.7.2 practical approaches and methods	32
conclusion.....	33

Introduction

The ability to understand spoken language is a fundamental aspect in communication, and accent has a big role in the sound that people perceive as speech and its interpretation. Listening comprehension is not just about recognizing words; but about understanding spoken messages using both language and other contextual clues. The presence of different accents requires the cognitively different accents requires the cognitively adaptive behavior of listeners, influenced by previous experience, degree of linguistic competence, and sociolinguistic bias. This chapter investigates the concept of (non)- native accents, their linguistic features, their impact on listening comprehension, and the role of perception and exposure in facilitating understanding. In addition, it examines the pedagogical implications of incorporating different accents into language learning and teaching strategies.

1. Notion of Language: Natural, Structural, Functional, Psychological, Sociological, Cultural, and Non-Verbal Perspectives

Chomsky views language as a complex cognitive system deeply embedded in the human mind. According to his theory, every speaker naturally masters and internalizes a generative grammar, which reflects their internal knowledge of the language. He explains that language inherently allows individuals to express an unlimited number of thoughts and respond suitably to countless new situations, demonstrating its capacity for infinite creativity. Chomsky describes the language system as beginning with a basic set of sentences from which all others are generated through transformations. To handle its complexity, language relies on abstract linguistic structures such as phrase structure and transformational rules, rather than functioning as a simple linear process. Together, these ideas portray language as cognition-based, structurally complex, and generative, enabling infinite expression from a finite set of rules and symbols.

Functionally, language serves as a tool for interaction, as seen in Halliday's (1973) framework where it fulfills ideational (expressing ideas), interpersonal (building relationships), and textual (organizing discourse) roles. From a psychological perspective,

language influences thought processes. Sapir (1921) argued that language shapes cognition for instance, Arabic speakers may perceive time differently because of how verb tenses are structured. From a sociological viewpoint, language mirrors social organization, as Bernstein (1971) noting how class-based "elaborated" and "restricted" codes affect communication in Algerian communities. Culturally, language embodies heritage, as Geertz(1973) describes it as a "web of significance" where Algerian Arabic dialects carry regional traditions. For mute individuals, language transcends speech, relying on sign systems like Algerian Sign Language, which uses gestures for communication (Stoke, 1960).

1.1 The Concept of Language Varieties

Language variation defines the different ways that language use varies in social, regional, and contextual settings. Language variation may encompass dialects, accents, slang, and sociolects and reflect how language appears and is performed as identity. Language variation is applicable in understanding diversity in culture and effective communication across societies (Trudgill, 2000). Some of these variations are explained as follows:

A.Idiolect :An idiolect is the personal manner in which an individual speaks, based on his/her personal experiences, social environment, and contact with language. For example, a student at Guelma University might consistently use French loanwords like "bonjour" in casual speech, reflecting their personal linguistic habits, distinct from regional norms. It was mentioned in Studysmarter (2023) that an idiolect is a person's distinctive way of using language, which is specific to them and continuously evolves throughout their life

B.Dialect :A dialect is a language form specific to a region or group of individuals that does not standard grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. If it is not standard“ A Regional or social variety of a language characterized by its own phonological, syntactic, and lexical properties”

A good example would be the case where in England, a Yorkshire) dialect speaker would use "I'm off down troad" instead of "I'm going down the road," which is an example of regional variation in grammar (Trudgill.2000).

C. Geolect :A geolect is a geographical area-influenced form of a language that can lead to varying pronunciation and vocabulary. For example, in America, a Southern geolect would use "y'all" whereas a Northern one would use "you guys" (Trusted Translations, 2023). Trusted Translations (2023) notes, "A variety spoken in a particular region is called a regional dialect (regiolect,geolect)."

D. Sociolect :A sociolect is a language variety used by a specific social group, depending on class or profession. Teenagers can, for example, use "slay" to mean "great job," but not older individuals Trudgill (2000) defines it as a way of speaking used by a specific social group or class.

E.Accent :An accent is not just the way an individual pronounces words, It also includes how they say individual sounds which syllables they stress; how their voice rises and falls when we say words typically based on their geographical position or where they come from. For example, a British RP would omit the "r" in "park" (as "pahk"), while aBostonaccentwould pronounce it (studysmarter, 2023). .

F.Register :Register refers to how language use shifts based on the context, the people involved, and the purpose of communication. This variation can range from formal to informal. For instance, someone might use polite, structured language in a job interview but switch to more relaxed and casual expressions when speaking with friends.

1.2 Introduction to (Non) –Native Accents

Accents, whether native or non-native, are an important part of how people speak and are often linked to identity, culture, and how others perceive them.

1.2.1 Overview of the Concept of (Non)-Native Accents

Native vs. non-native accent is also key to the understanding of language variation and its social consequence. Moyer (2013) states native accent refers to how people talk when they learn a language early in a given language community, typically accepted as the "standard" or "natural" speech. Nonnative accents are the result of acquiring a language later in life, usually characterized by the phonology of the mother language, making their pronunciation differ from the native one. This variation is not a mistake but an indication of an individual's language history and background.

In her research explores accents as more than just limited phonetic variation, highlighting their role in social identity and intercultural relations, contending accents of non-native speakers are significantly unfairly stigmatized by social biases against native-like pronunciation, closing off speakers' social and professional opportunities. She opposes the notion of one native accent and proposes that native talk is extremely varied geographically, dialectally, and in social contexts but is frequently seen as better as the linguistic competence norm. Moyer's view is that non-native accents are not permanent, but evolve with use and exposure, and can be a reflection of speakers' multilingual identity, a badge of cultural belonging.

Additionally, Benabddallah (2017, p. 92) notes, "students from Souk-Ahras consider their different accent as a linguistic enrichment even if they are linguistically discriminated by others especially when pronouncing the /t/ sound," supporting the idea of accents as a marker of identity. Moyer (2013) also speaks of the influence of accents on listener impressions, where

native speakers are more accepting of non-native speech due to unfamiliarity or prejudice, advocating training to enhance native speakers' proficiency in detecting other accents to facilitate effective communication. Accent-native or non-native-is in most perceptions a natural component of linguistic variation, something to be tolerated and savored within multicultural settings.

1.2.2 Constituents of (Non)-Native Accents

Moyer outlines the complex interplay between linguistic, cognitive, and social determinants that influence the genesis and maintenance of non-native accents, explaining a foreign accent is not so much a product of faulty articulation; but of systemic effects based on the phonological system of the speaker's L1 language and broader individual and contextual determiners

1.2.2.1 Phonological Factors

Most significant among these factors are the speaker's L1 phonological characteristics, which strongly influence L2 production. Moyer (2013) states, "the phonological system of a language is typically the most salient and persistent marker of foreignness in speech." (p.18) This includes segmental factors, including substitution of specific consonant or vowel sounds, and suprasegmental factors, including pitch, stress, and intonation. These phonetic mismatches are particularly clear in cases where the target language has phonemes not found in the learner's native phonological inventory. For instance, a Japanese L1 speaker may have trouble with /r/ vs. // in English, and a Spanish native speaker may have trouble with initial /s/-clusters, as in "school."

Even the most experienced speakers are not immune to such influences. Moyer explains how cross-linguistic phonological transfer can be noticeable even after years of exposure to languages for decades, conveying non-nativeness to listeners even when speech is

grammatically correct and fluent. Cognitive Contributions: The cognitive skill of the learner is another vital component in accent formation process. He draws attention to the operation of working memory, phonological short-term memory, and attentional control to facilitate accurate perception and production of sounds, stating, "cognitive abilities, including working memory and phonological short-term memory, have been linked to more native-like pronunciation in second language learners." Besides, self-correction and monitoring of pronunciation are greatly reliant on auditory discrimination and cognitive awareness, abilities that vary a great deal from person to person.

1.2.2.2. Sociolinguistic Factors

Sociolinguistic factors: outside of internal processing also affect accent acquisition, irrespective of internal processing. Moyer (2013, p.85) argues that high-integrative motivation learners, who need to belong to the target community, are most likely to achieve more native like sounding accents. Such learners tend to be more attentive to the phonetic detail of the language and more inclined to shift their speech toward native norms. Benabddallah (2017, pp.84-85) further supports this, noting, "The majority of students accept their different accents, and are integrated in the society, because they embrace their accent, and do not see it as an obstacle."

1.3 Linguistic Features of (Non)-Native Accents

Non-native speakers' accents are different from the native ones primarily due to the impact of a speaker's first language (L1) on the learning and production of sounds in a second language (L2). The variation appears in aspects like pronunciation, intonation, rhythm, and speech rate. These aspects can influence the comprehensibility of a person and naturalness of their speech. This section reviews the primary linguistic features-phonological processes, intonation contours, and stress patterns--that define non-native accents and influence their perception by listeners.

1.3.1 Phonological Differences

Native and non-native accentual differences arise from L1 phonological interference on L2 sound production, leading to problems of pronunciation. For example, it is hard for speakers of Japanese to distinguish between /l/ and /r/ because these are non-contrastive in Japanese. Flege (1995, p. 263) states, "the Japanese adults learning English as an L2 frequently failed to distinguish the English /r/ and /l/ sounds, presumably because these sounds are not contrastively used in Japanese. In middle and final position " This generates errors in word production and perception of words with these sounds. Similarly, Brazilian Portuguese speakers reduce English consonants according to L1 phonotactic constraints. Major (2001, p. 67) notes, "For example, Portuguese lacks // and /ʃ/, so speakers of Brazilian Portuguese will substitute /t/ or /d/ for these sounds in English words like 'think' and 'this' going on, 'The L1 phonotactic constraints tend to result in simplification of L2 consonant clusters or segments."

1.3.2 Intonation Patterns

Intonation, the use of pitch variation to mark meaning, is a special challenge for non-native speakers due to L1 prosodic interference. English native speakers employ certain intonation patterns, such as rising pitch on yes/no questions (e.g., "Are you coming?") and falling pitch on declarative statements (e.g., "I'm here.") (Cruttenden, 1997, p. 78). Speakers of tonal languages such as Yoruba prefer to carry over simpler intonation patterns into English. Mennen (2015, p. 182) found that Yoruba-English bilinguals make frequent use of a "simple fall" tone in various kinds of utterances, such as sarcastic or supportive ones, rather than native English rise or fall-rise contours, explaining, "Tonal L1 backgrounds often reduce the intonational complexity in L2 English, leading to flatter pitch contours." For example, a speaker of Yoruba-English would utter "That's great" with falling tone, and introduce discourse particles like "o" (e.g., "That's great o") to indicate excitement, compared to the indigenous rise-fall contour (Cruttenden, 1997, p. 92).

1.3.3 Rhythm

Speech rhythm, or the timing of stressed and unstressed syllables, is one of the most salient features of non-native accents that varies with L2 competence and is conditioned by the rhythmical properties of the L1. English is a stress-timed language, characterized by irregular syllable duration in which stressed syllables occur about at regular intervals, as in "The BIG DOG only) JUMPS" (Deterding, 2015, p. 65). In contrast, stress-timed languages like Spanish or French have more regular syllable lengths, and this can provide a source of rhythmic contrast in L2 English. English learners with an L1 stress-timed language as well tend to show rising stress-timing when they improve, with increased durational variability in their speech.

Deterding (2015, pp. 73-80) explains, "Advanced L2 learners exhibit more durational variability, bringing their rhythm closer to native English," which makes them sound more natural. As an example, a German learner might first produce even syllable durations in "I SAW the MOVIE" but then mark stressed syllables to mimic native stress-timing. However, native speakers had better utilize speech tempo, the speed or pace at which speech is produced, typically measured in syllables per second, at the cost of rhythmic variation while judging non-native rhythm; since the cues for tempo are more prominent perceptually. This points out that rhythm is an evolving characteristic which arises through proficiency; yet is processed via broader temporal cues.

1.3.4 Speech Rate

Speech rate, rate at which speech is produced, is a crucial parameter of non-native accent intelligibility, and increased rates typically exacerbate comprehension problems. Native English listeners are predominantly unintelligible over normal rates (3.2-3.5 syllables per second) and high rates (4.2-4.5 syllables per second), yet non-native listeners with salient accents experience drastic intelligibility loss at higher speeds. Munro and Derwing (1995, p. 78) found that Chinese ESL speakers with heavy accents have reduced comprehension when they speak at a rapid pace,

since the mispronunciations and prosodic errors are more disruptive, concluding, rapid speech exacerbates the perceptual challenges of accented speech, especially when prosodic deviations are present," which means that the combination of speech rate and accent is the most significant. These findings demonstrate that speech rate accentuates the perceptual difficulty posed by non-native accents, particularly to listeners unaccustomed to the speaker's L1-influenced patterns.

1.3.5 Differences Affecting Intelligibility

Phonological and prosodic L2 and L1 differences significantly reduce comprehension by causing mispronunciations, stress shift, and unfamiliar phonemes that disrupt listeners' speech stream processing. Mandarin Chinese speakers, for example, substitute /θ/ (in "think") with /t/ to pronounce "sink," since /θ/ does not exist in Mandarin consonant inventory. Chang (2019, p.112) argues, "Unfamiliar L2 phonemes are usually mapped onto the nearest L1 sound, causing systematic errors," which can get in the way of comprehending word meaning. Stress substitution also occurs with Spanish speakers; stress on the wrong syllable in "record" (noun, first syllable) versus "re'cord" (verb, second syllable) can cause listener confusion. Cutler (2012) concludes that Spanish-accented English is poorer with noisy listening conditions (46%-word recognition) than Standard Southern British English (80%) since acoustic-phonetic salience is hindered, particularly for vowel and consonant realization. In addition, Mandarin speakers also struggle with English stress patterns because their tonal L1 relies on pitch, not stress, and this causes confusion in sentences like "I'm READY" (stressed for emphasis) and "I'm ready" (neutral). These cross-linguistic differences show the manner in which L1 phonological and prosodic transfers adversely affect intelligibility by causing the anticipated linguistic cues to be disrupted. (Cutler, 2012, pp. 245-250)

1.3.6 Difference Between Native and Non-Native Speakers

Both native and non-native speakers offer complementary strengths to the language exchange, bringing different strengths to the learning process. Native speakers, who acquire the language from an early age in naturalistic settings, provide natural pronunciation, idiomatic use, and cultural insights that contribute to learners' fluency and contextual sensitivity. For instance, a native English speaker may employ the idiom "It's raining cats and dogs" and enrich its cultural value as an evocative metaphor for heavy rain. Richards and Schmidt (2010, p. 392) assert, "Native speakers' implicit knowledge of linguistic nuances enhances learners' exposure to authentic language use," thus making them well-suited for experiential learning. It means that, non-native speakers, as they have learned the language consciously, are often highly competent at explaining complex grammatical structures and empathizing with students' challenges, having passed through the same obstacles as well. For instance, a non-native teacher can clarify the use of present perfect ("I have just eaten") versus simple past ("I ate") tenses through comprehensible examples defined to the learner's L1 (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 394). Native speakers are best for learning fluency and cultural sensitivity, while non-native speakers provide guided instruction and the supportive setting within which beginners can learn, thus both being worthwhile depending on the learner's goals.

1.4 Impact of (Non) -Native Accents on Listening Comprehension

Accents play an important role in the intelligibility of speech. When a speaker has a foreign accent, it could be hard for the audience, particularly if they have not been used to hearing such an accent, therefore, this could lead to misunderstandings and make listening harder. Various factors bring about this issue, including pronunciation differences, rhythm of speech, familiarity of listeners, and their mastery of the language. Benabddallah (2017, p. 91) finds, "students do judge each other regarding their English accents," suggesting that such judgments can impact comprehension in educational settings.

1.4.1 Challenges in Comprehension

Foreign accents are the main obstacle for listening comprehension in EFL class. Buyukahiska and Uyar (2019, p.1385) administered seven English accents' listening comprehension task (British, Australian, Irish, French, Chinese, Argentinian, and Italian) to seventh-grade Turkish students, finding they performed well at the British-accented item with 80% comprehension level based on the exposure they experienced in course Books. Conversely, Irish and French accents were quite challenging, with comprehension at 3% and 4%, respectively, owing to phonological differences like the Irish pronunciation of "town" as /ten/ and "made" as /mid/, and the lack of phonemic stress among the French speaker. These results show that unacquainted accents disrupt learners' speech decoding, reducing comprehension

1.4.2 Factors

Familiarity with Accents Listening to nonnative-accented speech leads to increased comprehension with practice, and the same increase in intelligibility as for both native and nonnative accents. As soon as the subjects become used to the task, they indeed understand nonnative-accented speech better. But the effort to listen only decreases for nonnative-accented speech, finally amounting to the same as for native-accented speech. Within about 10 trials, the effort of listening to speech with a nonnative accent falls to the same level as with native speech, ending any native accent advantage at onset (Rovetti et al., 2023, pp.1-3).

1.4.2 Listener's Language Proficiency

A listener's L2 proficiency level is an important variable in his or her capacity to understand and process accented speech. The higher the proficiency, the greater the understanding. In an experiment, B1 and C2 German and Spanish L2 speakers (on the CEFR level) rated the comprehensibility and accentedness of Spanish-accented English speech. Against expectations, B1-level listeners (lower proficiency) rated the strongly accented speaker

as more intelligible than C2-level listeners (higher proficiency) and native speakers. However, C2-level listeners made fewer errors when transcribing the speech, showing that they in fact understood it better. This shows that higher proficiency leads to more accurate processing of accented speech, even though the speaker is rated more negatively (Beinhoff, 2014, pp. 66-70). Additionally, learners with greater L2 proficiency adapt more quickly to diverse accents. Intermediate and advanced learners improved their understanding of accented speech after training and adapted to it more quickly than beginners (Saito & Plonsky, 2019, p. 408).

1.4.5 Cognitive Load

Non-native-accented speech processing requires more mental effort than native-accented speech. The explanation for this increased cognitive demand is systematic differences in pronunciation that block automatic mapping of sounds onto representations in long-term memory. Rovetti et al. (2023, p. 1) define listening effort as "the mental effort required to attend to, and understand, an auditory message," noting it is considerably higher for non-native-accented speech on first exposure, and while lower in the long term, it initially places greater processing load on the listener than native-accented speech. In particular, pupil dilation and increased reaction times have been used to demonstrate increased cognitive effort (Rovetti et al., 2023, p. 2). Effortful listening, especially in unfavorable situations such as non-native accent, has its connections with mental fatigue. McGarrigle et al. (2024, p. 2464) observe, "speech comprehension, even among normal-hearing listeners, can tax cognitive resources due to prevailing background noise and other forms of distraction," further noting that frequent instances of effortful listening, even under conditions where speech is intelligible, result in fatigue that may accumulate irrespective of effort perception. This, in turn, suggests that extended cognitive load from listening tasks-such as that with speech under accent-may result in listener fatigue.

1.4.6 Role of Accent in Comprehension Difficulty

The extent to which the pronunciation of a speaker deviates from the standard patterns directly affects how difficult they are to understand. Bent and Bradlow (2003) showed that nonnative listeners occasionally find it easier to understand fellow non-native speakers than native speakers, particularly if there is a shared linguistic background, due to identical phonetic and phonological characteristics that deviate from standard English in identical ways. This is termed the "Matched Interlanguage Speech Intelligibility Advantage," in which it is easier for listeners to hear accents closer to their own language. Native English listeners, however, find native speakers preferable since other accents differ more from what they are used to. Thicker accents--particularly non-native accents--can also lead listeners to depend more on contextual cues, as non-native speakers are usually less capable of utilizing such cues efficiently, particularly in adverse listening conditions.

1.5 Perceptions of (Non) Native Accents

Native and non-native accents are also seen to exert a powerful influence on communication, typically based on stereotype, bias, and social attitude. Such perceptions can dictate the evaluation of speakers, interpretation of messages, and involvement of listeners in communication. This section considers the influence of such perceptions on listening comprehension and their broader implications for language learning.

1.5.1 Perception of Different Accents

The perceptions of non-native and native accents vary, and they are often prone to cultural prejudices and listener attitudes. Non-native speakers show a greater likelihood of being stigmatized due to their accents compared to native speakers, showing different perceptions based on the nature of the accent. Non-native accents also usually introduce negative perceptions because they deviate from the perceived linguistic norm and can trigger

unconscious biases, stereotypes, or feelings of unfamiliarity in listeners that lead to discrimination, deciding how these accents are perceived compared to native ones.

Non-native accents are likely to lead to stereotypes, such as assumptions about a speaker's intelligence or social status, influencing how they are perceived in communication. Baghdasaryan indicates that non-native accent stigmatization is associated with biased assumptions about the cultures that non-native speakers represent, noting sometimes, native speakers attribute lower intelligences to non-native speakers by these misconceptions, and subsequently, reject cooperation in communication. Listeners are in a position to be prejudiced against native accents and judge them to be superior or easier to understand, which results in discrimination against non-native speakers in whatever situation. (Baghdasaryan, n.d., pp. 120-124)

Fuertes et al. (2012) note standard accents are mostly identified as representing the majority populace and associated with high socio-economic status, media consumption, power, and high level of usage of mass media, as opposed to the nonstandard ones that are alienated or reserved for minorities or low socio-economic groups. A meta-analysis found that speakers with standard accents are rated significantly higher than those with non-standard accents in terms of status, solidarity, and dynamism, with standard-accented speakers receiving ratings almost a full point higher in these areas, demonstrating a strong bias in favor of native accents. Overall, standard-accented speakers are rated much higher-nearly one full standard deviation more - compared to non-standard-accented speakers, which shows a substantial advantage for standard-accented speakers and a significant disadvantage for non-standard-accented ones. The stigmatization of accented speech can also become tied to social identity, leading to nonnative speakers feeling less of a sense of belonging (Fuertes et al., 2012, pp. 121-130).

1.5.2. Attitudes towards (non)-native speakers

Attitudes toward non-native speakers are deeply influenced by social and cultural factors, often ranging from tolerance to bias. While some listeners are patient and willing to accommodate unfamiliar accents, others respond with frustration, associating foreign-accented speech with a lack of intelligence or competence. This reaction is less about actual communication difficulties and more about social expectations and stereotypes. As Lippi-Green (2012) argues, accent discrimination is a subtle but persistent form of linguistic prejudice in many societies, particularly in the United States. She explains that native listeners often judge speakers not on their language ability but on how closely they match the dominant accent norm. As a result, non-native speakers may face unfair treatment, even when their language is perfectly understandable. This shows how listener attitudes can act as invisible barriers to effective communication.

1.5.3 Perceptions Influence on Listening Comprehension

Perceptions of the speaker based on visual cues, ethnicity, or expected language ability can significantly influence how listeners process what they hear. When a listener expects to hear a foreign accent, they may automatically assume the speech will be difficult to understand, and this assumption can negatively impact comprehension. In a well-known study, Rubin (1992) found that students rated a lecture as less intelligible when they were shown a photo of an Asian-looking instructor, even though the audio was spoken by a native English speaker. This demonstrated that it was not the actual speech but the listeners' perceptions of the speaker's identity that shaped their understanding. Such findings emphasize how biases and assumptions can create barriers in listening comprehension that are not rooted in language itself but in the attitudes and expectations of the listener.

1.5.4 Expectation

The expectations listeners hold before engaging with a speaker also shape their listening experience and comprehension. When listeners anticipate difficulty due to a speaker's foreign accent, they may unconsciously put less effort into understanding, or they may interpret even minor pronunciation differences as major obstacles. Lev-Ari and Keysar (2010) conducted a study where

participants evaluated the credibility of statements made by both native and non-native speakers. Even when the message was clear and accurate, listeners were less likely to trust information from speakers with foreign accents. This suggests that the mere expectation of difficulty or lower credibility can influence how the message is received and processed. On the other side, foreign-accented speakers who expect negative reactions may also feel self-conscious or anxious, which affects the clarity and confidence of their speech. Therefore, expectations—both from the speaker and the listener—play a powerful role in shaping listening outcomes and mutual understanding.

1.5.6 Familiarity

Comprehension improves when listeners become accustomed to non-native accent, as they become familiar with its rhythm and pattern of sound. Gass and Varonis (1984) found in one study the subjects were better able to comprehend sentences that came later after listening to a non-native speaker read a text aloud, happening in seven out of eight instances, and in five of those eight cases, the listeners understood sentences best when those sentences were being read by the same non-native speaker to whom they had already been listening, showing that becoming accustomed to a given speaker's accent can improve understanding. The researchers found that even just hearing a non-native speaker read-something unrelated-made subsequent sentences easier to understand, which suggests that even brief exposure is useful. Furthermore, skilled ESL instructors who were used to hearing nonnative speech made fewer mistakes (mean 0.8 to 1.9 errors) than less skilled listeners (1 to 5 errors), which confirming that regular exposure to non-native accents leads to enhanced comprehension (Gass & Varonis, 1984, pp. 77-79).

1.6 Role of Exposure to Accents in Language Learning

Being exposed to a wide range of English accents is crucial in enhancing listening skills and general linguistic competence. In a very English-diverse world, where the language is spoken differently by various people, learners must become accustomed to the differences in

sound and speech patterns of its accents. This section examines how exposure makes the learner more flexible, better understanding, and more confident in speaking in real communicative contexts. It also explores how exposure to different accents-native and nonnative speakers-can help improve listening skills, understanding of language, and show how English is really spoken around the world. Benabddallah (2017) observes, "Teachers, on the other hand, emphasized on the importance of correct articulation, like a native speaker, and that the interference of regional accent in speaking English is evaluated as an error" (p. 92), underscoring the pedagogical focus on accent exposure.

1.6.1 Importance of Exposure to Accents in Learning

It is necessary for language learners to be exposed to diverse accents in order to familiarize them with actual speech. With the era of globalization, English language proficiency is more important now than it has ever been. British and American media offer a great source of multicultural exposure to different accents, which familiarizes the learner with diverse forms of speech along with vocabulary. British TV-shows like “Doctor Who, Sherlock, and The Crown” use distinctive British vocabulary and accents, while American TV shows like “Friends, the podcast, and This American Life podcasts familiarize students with American accents and slang. Programs like the Desert Island Discs and The Archers from the UK and American programs like Radiolab and This American Life introduce students to different modes of speech and render them more sensitive to cultural knowledge. Radio stations like the BBC and CNN also introduce students to differences in accents and expose the English language as a diverse and rich language.

In addition, language exchange clubs familiarize students with different accents and speaking styles, allowing them to comprehend English better. Getting exposed to other varieties of English, such as Australian or Canadian, also illustrates the global status of the language and enhances listening (Core Languages, 2024).

1.6.2 Interaction with Accents and Listening Comprehension

Interacting with various accents directly affects listening comprehension by helping students become familiar with different phonetic features. Core Languages (2024, para. 3-8) notes podcasts like “BBC Radio 4's The Archers (UK) and This American Life (US)” expose students to different speaking patterns, further increasing their familiarity with English. News programs from the “BBC (UK) and CNN (US)” also expose students to diverse accents, allowing them to better appreciate the complexity of the English language and improve their comprehension. Communities of native English speakers provide students with real-life exposure to various accents and speaking styles, offering a full understanding of how English is used in different contexts. Using transcriptions alongside accented audio or video content helps students link sounds with written language, improving their ability to understand spoken English in real-time. Additionally, spectral features of non-native vowels play a significant role in comprehension. Zhi and Li (2021) show American intelligibility ratings are negatively affected by spectral differences (MahalanobisDS: $r = -0.322$, $p = 0.007$), and a similarly trend is observed in British listeners ($r = -0.347$, $p = 0.004$), meaning that accents that are more spectrally similar are easier to understand. Spectral cues, more than temporal cues, are crucial in shaping how non-native speakers perceive native vowels, highlighting the importance of accents in understanding spoken English.

1.7 Teaching Listening Skills with Different Accents

With globalization today, English language learners are faced with a plethora of various accents and dialects, which reflect the multilateral English-speaking population worldwide. Listening instruction must, therefore, move beyond conventional native speaker accents and involve exposure to various speech patterns, pronunciations, and speech styles. Developing the skill to understand diverse accents enhances students' overall listening ability. builds confidence in real life communication, and equips students for real life interactions in school, at

work, and in society. This section is interested in the best practices and methods of teaching listening comprehension with an emphasis on accent variation. It is concerned with encouraging the use of authentic materials, interactive tasks, and explicit instruction that makes the learners more powerful and effective in understanding oral English in varying forms.

1.7.1 Strategies for Teaching Listening Comprehension

Teaching listening comprehension in an L2 class is more than employing the usual comprehension-based teaching procedures that revolve around answering questions about a piece of writing. Instead, the teacher should stress the process of listening and teach students how to develop the skills to decode and comprehend spoken language effectively. Here are valuable teaching strategies for teaching listening comprehension from evidence-based procedures. Emphasize Listening Processes Rather than instructing listening as a product (i.e., correct responses to questions of understanding), instructors should teach the intellectual functions of listening, consisting of sound decoding, word identification, and interpretation of sentences in the moment. Field (2008) emphasizes, "listening is not a single skill but a complex of sub-skills" (p. 25). Teachers can create activities to isolate and practice such sub-skills, e.g., phoneme discrimination practice or drills to focus on pinning down the word boundary within stream of speech.

1.7.1.1 Use Authentic Materials with Scaffolding

Incorporating authentic audio and video materials such as interviews, podcasts, or TV clips exposes learners to real-world language use, accents, and speech rates. However, this type of input can overwhelm learners without support. Teachers can scaffold listening by introducing key vocabulary beforehand, guiding students with pre-listening questions, and using post-listening discussions to clarify understanding. As Gilmore (2007) argues, authentic materials promote natural language exposure and contextual understanding but must be accompanied by structured activities to be effective in the classroom.

1.7.1.2 Teach Bottom-Up and Top-Down Processing

Effective listening instruction must train both bottom-up and top-down processes. Bottom-up skills involve decoding individual sounds, recognizing words, and understanding grammatical structures. In contrast, top-down processing draws on prior knowledge, contextual clues, and prediction. According to Vandergrift (2007), successful listeners integrate both processes dynamically. For example, phonetic discrimination activities help develop bottom-up skills, while prediction tasks using titles or visuals stimulate top-down strategies. Balancing both approaches enhances learners' ability to construct meaning from spoken input.

1.7.1.3 Construct Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies enable learners to regulate their listening through planning, monitoring, and evaluating their performance. These strategies build learner autonomy by encouraging them to identify what works for them and what does not. Goh (2008) emphasizes that metacognitive instruction such as teaching students how to set listening goals, check understanding during tasks, and reflect on difficulties afterward leads to measurable improvements in listening performance. Teachers should model these strategies explicitly and provide opportunities for learners to apply them during class.

1.7.1.4 Overcome Anxiety

Listening can be anxiety-inducing for L2 learners, especially when dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary, accents, or rapid speech. High anxiety levels often result in poorer comprehension and decreased motivation. Graham (2006) notes that building learner confidence through structured, supportive listening tasks such as practicing with slower recordings or familiar topics can reduce anxiety significantly. Pair or group activities also help, as learners feel less isolated and more supported in their efforts to understand spoken language.

1.7.1.5 Incorporate Technology

Technology offers powerful tools for enhancing listening instruction. Online platforms, language learning apps, and multimedia materials provide flexible, interactive, and learner-centered listening experiences. For instance, the use of subtitled videos helps learners connect spoken and written language, while pause and rewind functions allow for repeated exposure to challenging content. Brett (1997) found that multimedia-based listening practice improves vocabulary retention and comprehension more effectively than traditional listening drills. Teachers can also encourage autonomous listening practice through podcasts, YouTube videos, and language-learning websites.

1.7.2 Practical Approaches and Methods

Effective listening skill instruction involves the use of real-life, interactive strategies that enhance learners' comprehension across different contexts. One approach includes guided listening tasks where students listen to recorded conversations and are asked to identify specific information such as names, numbers, or dates. This method helps learners focus on essential details and trains their ears for practical communication situations. In addition, activities like podcast summarizing or group discussions about the content improve both listening and speaking skills. Classroom listening can also be made engaging through short, informal practices for example, playing an English song during recess or using a brief audio clip to introduce a class topic. Furthermore, using real-life materials like news broadcasts, movies, and TV shows exposes students to naturally spoken English, helping them build familiarity with native speech. Dictation tasks, listening for tone or emotion, and identifying main ideas versus specific details are also helpful in diversifying listening practice. These strategies, when integrated into the classroom, create exposure-based learning environments that support authentic skill development (Teachers Institute Foundation, 2023).

Another crucial aspect of listening instruction is exposing learners to different English accents. This can be achieved through audio and video materials where students complete comprehension tasks after watching videos featuring varied accents. For instance, worksheets or quizzes can accompany clips titled *"Accents Around the World"* or *"English Accents"* from YouTube, allowing students to practice distinguishing between regional varieties. Teachers can also enhance this by encouraging students to work in pairs or small groups, replaying the material as needed. Consistent exposure to various accents—through course content, online resources, or diverse instructors helps learners become more adaptable and confident in real-world communication (Kawasaki, 2020).

Conclusion

This chapter has explored the multifaceted role of native and non-native accents in language comprehension, emphasizing their linguistic, cognitive, and sociolinguistic dimensions, with insights from Benabddallah's dissertation highlighting their impact on identity and education. Accents-whether native or non-native-are fundamental to linguistic variation, shaped by phonological systems, mental processing, and social context. Non-native accents, often influenced by first -language phonological transfer, pose specific challenges in pronunciation, intonation, rhythm, and speech rate, which can affect intelligibility and listener understanding. However, these challenges are not insurmountable, as familiarity, listener proficiency, and consistent exposure significantly improve comprehension over time. Additionally, social perceptions-including stereotypes and biases-play a crucial role in how accents are received, often leading to the unfair stigmatization of non-native speakers which must be replaced by tolerance and patience from the part of native speakers. In the language learning context, exposure to a variety of accents is essential for developing well-rounded listening skills and enhancing adaptability in global communication, while pedagogical

strategies using authentic materials and interactive methods foster inclusivity and Cultural sensitivity in multilingual environments.

Chapter two:

Listening comprehension

CHAPTER TWO: LISTENING COMPREHENSION

introduction	39
2.1. Definition of listening comprehension	39
2.1.1 listening skill	39
2.1.2 listening comprehension.....	28
2.1.3. Listening sub-skills	30
2.1.4 importance of listening comprehension:	31
2.2 process of listening comprehension	32
2.2.1 bottom-up processing	32
2.2.2 top down process	33
figure 01: interaction between tdp & bup strategies in language processing.....	34
2.2.2.1 interactive process	34
2.3 stages of listening comprehension.....	35
2.3.1 pre-listening.....	35
2.3.2 while-listening	36
2.3.3 post listening	37
2.4 types of listening comprehension	38
2.4.1. Discriminative listening	38
2.4.2. Informative listening	38
2.4.3. Appreciative listening.....	38
2.4.4. Relational listening.....	39
2.4.5. Critical listening	39
2.4.6 sympathetic listening.....	39
2.4.7 therapeutic listening	39
2.4.8. Selective listening	39
2.4.9. Comprehensive listening:	40
2.4.10 extensive listening	40
2.4.11 intensive listening.....	40
2.5. Strategies of listening	41
2.5.1. Metacognitive strategies.....	41
2.5.2 cognitive strategies	42
2.5.3 socioaffective strategies	42
2.6 theories of listening	43

2.7 factors of listening comprehension	44
2.7.1 bottom-up factors	44
2.7.2 top-down factors.....	45
2.7.3 other factors.....	45
2.8 obvious problems of listening comprehension.....	46
2.8.1 less obvious l2 listening problems	47
2.9 teaching listening comprehension	47
2.9.1 bottom up.....	48
2.9.2 top down.....	50
conclusion.....	50

Introduction

Listening is an important part of learning any language, yet understanding through listening could be an underestimated component. This capacity is important for both formal and informal communication. This chapter aims to explore listening comprehension and explain it in a comprehensive manner, starting by its definition, processes, role and pedagogical stages in language learning. Through explaining bottom-up, top-down, and interactive processing models and pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening activities, this study aims to provide a complete simple picture of how listening comprehension may be optimally taught and developed in ESL/EFL settings.

2.1. Definition of Listening Comprehension

Before exploring the concept of listening comprehension, it is important to understand the listening skill itself and how it functions as a process.

2.1.1 Listening Skill

One of the most important language skills for academic language development and lifetime communication is listening. While examining this skill, it is noticed that it has more than one definition, as Witkin (1990) argued: “No one theory about what listening is” (P7). However, it has been described in multiple definitions.

Vendergift (2002) argued that listening skill refers to the ability of hearing sounds, words and sentences, then interpreting the meaning behind them based on the listener’s knowledge and his/her prior experiences about the topic. He add that: “it is a complex, active process in which the listener must discriminate between sounds, understand vocabulary and grammatical structures, interpret stress and intonation, retain and interpret it within the immediate as well as the larger socio-cultural context of the utterance.”(p.168)

This view aligns with Rost's who believes that listening in daily terms mostly people refer to listening by "catching" what someone says. The concept of listening was shaped through multiple fields including; psychology, linguistics, education, and technology. And it was conceptualized as a receptive, constructive, collaborative, or transformative process. is an important complex process of oral language communication that extends beyond the act of just hearing sounds. It is a series of cognitive activities that starts by understanding, interpreting then responding to spoken language. Listening is not easily observable, as it takes place within the internal cognitive domain (Rost, 2011, pp. 1-2).

Similarly, Lundsteen (1979) defines listening as a cognitive process in which language is translated into meaning. In her view, understanding is the listener's response to the spoken message. She compared it to reading skill; when reading a written passage, the student have to "decode" the text first (cognitive process), and then translate what was decoded in the mind by expressing it in spoken words (p.8-9).

Based on the definitions, listening skill could be defined: as an active process of comprehension, interpretation and response to a spoken language; it exceeds hearing and entails the mind creating meaning out of what is heard.

2.1.2 Listening Comprehension

Listening comprehension is frequently regarded as the listener's top priority and the primary objective of listening. It is even seen by many as the only reason to listen. Rost mentioned that comprehension is the mechanism of what Sanders and Gernsbacher (2004) called "structure building", which means the organization of ideas step by step when the listener interprets the text in relation to his/her existing knowledge, and connecting it to real life situations, seeking for coherence (clarity of the message) and relevance (meaningful). (Rost, 2011, pp.53-54)

Listening comprehension is a type of academic listening in the sense that when two students hear the same spoken or recorded language they can interpret the message differently. As Stephen and Lucas (1998) explained: “Comprehensive listening is devoted for understanding the message of a speaker, as when we attend a classroom lecture.” (p.58)

Moreover, listening comprehension is a cognitive process composed of two-stages: (1) an initial linguistic decoding phase, in which phonological, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic knowledge are called upon to decode the spoken input, and (2) an application phase, in which the outcome of this decoding process is merged with background information and context in an attempt to construct meaning (Anderson, 1983, 1985; Lund, 1991; Flowerdew, 1994).

Furthermore, listening comprehension from pragmatic perspective concentrates on what a particular utterance means to an individual in a given speech situation, although the meaning of a sentence is determined by its semantic structure that indicates what a sentence means as a structure in a language under consideration, in abstraction from speaker and addressee. (Leech,1977, p.1)

Therefore, understanding any listening material is a challenge for many learners. One of the reasons is not only the lack of practice; but also the lack of sufficient cultural background knowledge of the target language (Hayati,2009). From a cultural perspective, listening comprehension is more than only understanding spoken language, it requires interpretations of the underlying social behaviors, contextual cues, and cultural norms. Without this cultural knowledge, people may face misunderstanding and misinterpretations. (Wang, 2011. p,223)

Besides, from paralinguistic perspective; listening comprehension is ability of understanding the message through wordless messages, this message could be conveyed through; voice tone, gestures, loudness, rate of speech, facial expressions, pauses etc.

Listening comprehension refers to the ability of the listener to understand what is heard in a way which she/he relates it to what she/he already knows (prior knowledge). It is more than only hearing sounds, it is an organized process whose goal is to understand the message meaningfully and clearly. Besides, it involves decoding language as well as drawing upon background information to create meaning, while taking cultural differences in consideration. This is why two persons are able to listen to the same message and interpret it in different ways; it is a question of how each of them decodes it in her/his head.

2.1.3. Listening Sub-Skills

According to various researchers, though one has acquired a set of listening skills and strategies in our L1, listeners still require some help in acquiring skills targeted for target language learning and transferring existing skills to new contexts. Some of the listening sub-skills put forward by White are as follows:

- Perception abilities: identification of discrete sounds, discrimination of sounds, identification of reduced forms in fast speech, identification of stressed syllables, identification of stressed words within sentences, identification of intonation patterns.
- Language abilities: identification of discrete words and sets and building possible meanings for them, identification of discourse markers.
- Employing world knowledge: linking sets of words to non-linguistic information in order to derive hints at meaning, employing knowledge of a subject to infer what the speaker may be saying about it, employing knowledge of patterns of interaction that certain verbal interactions tend to follow to make an educated guess as to what is being said, (i.e., relying

on familiar situations or routines—like greetings or ordering food—to predict what the speaker probably means, even without understanding every word).

- Manipulation of Information: understanding gist meaning, understanding the main points, understanding details, inferring that is not expressed, or which has been skipped. (White, 1998, pp.8-9)

- Prediction: refers to the anticipation of what the speaker will say next based on context, background knowledge, and familiar language patterns. This helps the listener understand the message more easily and fill in missing information.

2.1.4 Importance of listening comprehension:

Nunan (1998) asserts that the majority of people believe that mastering a second language depends only on speaking and writing; however, if they do not become skilled at listening, they will not communicate successfully. That is to say, writing and speaking are important skills, but listening comprehension is more frequent in language learning, and over half of the time when learners are in touch with the language, they listen. for example, to, conversations, movies, classes, and songs. As he stated: "listening is the basic skill in language learning. Without listening skill, learners will never learn to communicate effectively. In fact, over 50% of the time that students spend functioning in a foreign language will be devoted to listening" (p. 1).

In addition, Yıldırım & Yıldırım (2016) and Anderson and Lynch (2003) said, “We only become aware of what remarkable feats of listening we achieve when we are in an unfamiliar listening environment, such as listening to a language in which we have limited proficiency.” This shows the importance of listening comprehension as they differentiate between how easy it is to listen to one’s own language in contrast to listening to a foreign language one can realize how essential it is for communication. (p.2097)

Moreover, according to Rivers (1981): "Speaking does not of itself constitute communication unless what is said is comprehended by another person." (Rivers, 1981, p: 22)

In simple words, speaking is not enough to be considered communication; for there to be communication, the message must be understood by others. If the listener does not understand the message, there is no real exchange. Therefore, understanding is a necessary element of communication, and without it, communication is incomplete.

It can be conducted that, the previous discussed ideas emphasize that listening comprehension is fundamental in language-learning. Speech by itself is insufficient to achieve the goal of communication without comprehension. As a result, listening comprehension is essential to a learner's capacity for successful second-language interaction/learning.

2.2 Process of listening comprehension

In language learners there exists various models explaining how listening comprehension process functions, and these following process are arguably the most convincing models that are recognized in literature: "bottom-up process", "top-down process" and "interactive process".

2.2.1 Bottom-up processing

As Buck explained: acoustic input is first decoded into phonemes then this is used to identify individual words, then processing continues on the next higher stage, the syntactic level followed by an analysis of semantic content to arrive at literal understanding of the basic linguistic meaning. Finally, the listener interprets that literal meaning in terms of communicative situations to understand what the speaker means" (Buck, 2001, p.2).

Buck's definition summarized the whole bottom up process, he referred to it as decoding skills, the type of skills used by students to deconstruct auditory information and break it down into its simplest elements for analyzing them. This process entails identification, recognition,

and differentiation of sounds, syllables, words, phrases, sentence structures, and intonation patterns, all of which play a role in understanding the meaning of the auditory stimulus.

In addition to Buck, Flowerdew and Miller (2005, p. 24) believe that listening comprehension begins with basic sound units, which are grouped into words, these words are combined to form phrases and sentences and at the end those large structures create meaning and ideas.

In simple terms, the bottom-up listening mechanism starts with phonemes and basic sounds, moving towards more complicated words and sentences and focusing on sequential decoding. Students must differentiate and recognize these oral components.

2.2.2 Top down process

Unlike the bottom-up process; while it starts from specific to general; the top down process moves from broad to specific, as students' interpret what they hear based on their background knowledge. This process allows them to predict and anticipate what will come next. (Rumelhart, 1980, p. 41)

In addition, Anderson (1988) supports this idea as he said: "Listener as tape recorder and listener as active model builder." (p. 9). According to his quote he compared the two processes using metaphors: the first "listener as tape recorder" reflecting the bottom-up processing, where the listener is seen as passive by focusing on receiving and decoding the linguistic input without a necessity of integrating any prior information. In contrast he called the top-down process a "listener as active model builder", where the listener plays an active role when understanding spoken language through connecting ideas to previous experiences and existing knowledge.

In other words, the following figure illustrates this two-way contribution: bottom-up process begins with the decoding of low-level aspects of language, such as sounds and letters,

and proceeds from there through word and phrase identification until total comprehension is achieved. Whereas top-down process operates in the opposite direction, starting from the listener's background information, expectations, and situational context, which shape and guide the interpretation of the arriving information at all lower levels.

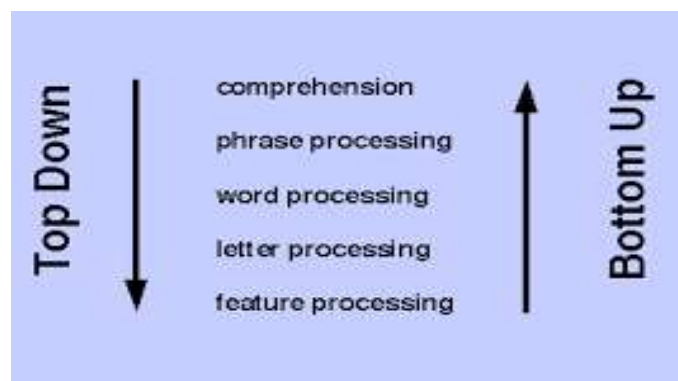


Figure 01: Interaction Between TDP & BUP Strategies in Language Processing

Note. Adapted from LISTENING COMPREHENSION through the APPLICATION of TOP down and BOTTOM-up PROCESSING (2025)

2.2.2.1 Interactive Process

As Brown (2001, pp.249-250) emphasized that listening is not a simple one-way action, rather it is more than just hearing sounds, it is an active and complex mechanism, involving a combination of two processes: the first one is “psychomotor process”; which starts by listening and receiving sounds and spoken words transmitted to the brain by waves and signals. The second one is the whole operation that happens in the brain in order to understand the message.

According to (Clark & Clark 1977 and Richard 1983), these two process are detailed as following:

1. Storage “image” of raw speech in short term memory by the brain, including intonation, stress pattern and other structural components.

2. Identification of the speech type (whether it is a broadcast, conversation, or any other type).
3. Interpretation of the message and speaker's aim from the message by analyzing the speech's purpose, content and context and determining its function.
4. The application of prior knowledge and experiences about the topic for accurate understanding.
5. Comprehending the surface meaning (literal meaning) of what has been heard (semantic interpretations).
6. Understanding intended meaning behind what is said (it is matching what is heard to what is meant).
7. Choosing and deciding if the information should be stored in short term memory for immediate responses or long-term memory for more complex use.
8. The exact wording may be forgotten by the listener most of the time, but the meaning will certainly be stored in the memory for future use.

2.3 Stages of Listening Comprehension

There exist three separate stages present in listening comprehension, in order to assist students and ease the enhancement of their listening skills in classroom: pre-listening, while listening, and post-listening.

2.3.1 Pre-Listening: it is the stage that prepares students for listening tasks. Students are required to brainstorm; bring their attitudes and prior knowledge about the topic. That it say, it helps students to focus on the topics by concentrating on the items, which they expect to hear, and evoking related knowledge and familiar language (Mary Underwood, 1989, p.31).

When planning lessons, teachers must allocate time for pre – listening activities, by preparing same listening activities. Providing students equal chances to obtain some knowledge and informations to follow the listening material. Here is a guiding plan, a teacher could follow for pre-listening activities, including:

- Giving backgrounds about the topic by teacher
- Students read something relevant to the topic
- Asking students looking at pictures/or any provided material
- Discussions about the topic or situation
- Teacher asks questions and students answer session
- Written exercise
- Respection instructions for the while – listening activity given by the teacher
- Consideration of how the while – listening activity will be finished (Mary Underwood, 1989, p. 31)

2.3.2 While-Listening: Students in this stage are supposed to listen for grasping the meaning. The teacher allows them to listen for several times and each time they listen for a specific purpose (listening for the gist), as Win and Maung (2019) argue: “The aim of the while-listening stage for students is to understand the message of the text, not catching every word. Therefore, during this stage, most of the while-listening activities focus on listening for the gist, listening for specific information, and listening for speaker’s attitude or opinion related to language knowledge and cultural information students had in pre-listening activities to get listening comprehension.” (p.2285)

Moreover, while-listening stage is the hardest stage for students as they have to listen carefully and intensely to complete the tasks. Teachers must provide enough time for students to read the questions first and then play the audio at least twice, which makes it the longest stage. The idea is supported by Underwood, as he claimed:” “While-listening activities are what

students are asked to do during the time that they are listening to text. As far as listening comprehension (i.e. listening for meaning) is concerned, the purpose of while listening activities is to help learners develop the skill of eliciting messages from spoken language.” (Underwood ,1989, p.45), The following example suggests a while listening task:

Teacher plays the recording and gives students time to listen, then asks for the main idea. Teacher replays the recording again and ask more hard questions. For example, asking about the problems, events, paroles from the record etc.

Finally, she/he asks some direct and simple questions based on the topic and students’ needs. (Raza, 2016, p.87)

2.3.3 Post Listening: after the first two stages (preparation/brainstorming + listening/repetition), students now are going to be tested if they successfully understood the previous activities. This idea is supported by Prace (2009) by saying: “there are a number of purposes why to incorporate follow-up activities into the lesson plans. One of them can be checking if the learners understood the listening passage or whether they finished the task successfully”. (p.28)

Post listening is the outcome of the while-listening stage, the teacher will test students’ listening comprehension by different methods, for example citing information and discussions in pair or groups about what they listened to is very good task for testing comprehension, Liao (2012) approved this by stating that: “After the listener has understood the message, it’s important for them to think aloud by telling someone what they have heard. Therefore, giving an oral summary is necessary for students in EFL classroom.” (p.18)

In summary, all three stages are important for listening comprehension; each stage serves for specific purpose, which cannot be replaced by another. first, Pre listening, helps students with preparation to listen, in which they recall their prior knowledge and information about specific topic. Second, while listening, is the core of listening comprehension which gives

students opportunity for real time comprehension. Post-listening, help students to integrate and reflect what they learnt.

2.4 Types of Listening Comprehension

There exist nine types of listening comprehension:

2.4.1. Discriminative Listening: this type of listening is when the listener pays close attention to how the speaker is talking like their tone of voice, loudness, and speed. By noticing these things, the listener can understand different meanings, even if the words are the same. It's about recognizing feelings and emotions behind the speaker's words. For example, saying "I'm fine" in a soft, sad voice can mean something very different from saying it cheerfully. So, in discriminative listening, the listener focuses more on the way something is said, rather than the words themselves. (Raju, 2018, p.42)

2.4.2. Informative Listening: the word "informative" comes from "information" and "education," as explained by Merriam-Webster (2025). This type of listening focuses on understanding facts or instructions that are being said. It is mostly used in school, work, or news settings where the speaker gives information the listener needs to understand clearly. A person is considered a good informative listener only if they understand what the speaker really meant the exact intended message. So, informative listening is all about receiving and understanding spoken content correctly. (Ziane, 2011, p.15)

2.4.3. Appreciative Listening: according to the Merriam-Webster (2025) dictionary, "appreciative" means something close to admiring or enjoying. This kind of listening happens when a person listens to something just because they enjoy it. It is not about learning or judging it is about having a good time while listening. For example, when you listen to music, a funny podcast, an audiobook, or even a friend telling a joke, you are doing appreciative listening. The goal here is simply entertainment or pleasure. (Ziane, 2011, p.11)

2.4.4. Relational Listening: Relational listening is used when the main goal is to connect with the speaker emotionally. In this case, the listener tries to understand the feelings and point of view of the person speaking. It is not just about the message, but also about showing support, care, and empathy. This kind of listening helps to build trust and strong relationships. It is often used by therapists or counselors, who listen carefully to understand people's problems without making them feel uncomfortable or judged. (Ziane, 2011, p.12)

2.4.5. Critical Listening: means the listener is not just receiving information, but is also thinking deeply about it. They try to judge, evaluate, and analyze what is being said, comparing it to what they already know or believe. The listener asks themselves: "Do I agree with this? Is this true or biased?" This type of listening is common in debates, lectures, or persuasive speeches, where it's important to decide whether the speaker's arguments make sense. So, critical listening involves forming an opinion based on careful thinking. (Raju, 2018, p.42)

2.4.6 Sympathetic listening: It is similar to therapeutic listening, where the listener engages with the speaker on the emotional level, caring about her feelings, supporting him and showing concern to her feelings by making him/her feel heard and understood. (Raju, 2018, p.43)

2.4.7 Therapeutic listening: It goes beyond empathetic listening, heavily focuses on emotional experiences and delivering necessary support to heal a person's sorrow and making them feel better. (Raju, 2018, p.43)

2.4.8. Selective listening: This type of listening describes the act of aural perception selectively; refers to selective which means according to the Cambridge dictionary, being "picky" and "choosy" to find specific information while listening. In other terms, it is listening with a goal to fulfill certain needs, like in listening for the purpose of answering a question or doing a task. When it is used in everyday life, listeners only listen to what they like to hear by choice and ignore the rest by choice. (Rost,2011, p.187).

2.4.9. Comprehensive listening: It is the step that follows discriminative listening, it involves the listener understanding the speaker's whole message and interpreting its meaning based on their comprehending and perspectives. People's examination of the message varies from person to another as they have different ideas, beliefs, experiences and context. In addition to verbal language, non-verbal ones such as; body language, facial experiences, eye contact, gestures, play important roles in gathering inferences about what the speaker is trying to portray. (Raju, 2018, p.42)

2.4.10 Extensive listening: It is the act of listening to spoken language for extended duration, it is also referred to as “listening for academic purposes”, as well as “Sheltered language Instruction”. It emphasizes general comprehension of the message’s ideas and meaning instead of focusing on and analyzing vocabulary and grammar. It can be used outside academic purposes. As Rost, mentioned in other words: “Extensive listening refers to listening for several minutes at a time, staying in the target language, usually with a long-term goal of appreciating and learning the content. Extensive listening includes academic listening, sheltered language instruction, and ‘listening for pleasure’”. (2013, p. 194).

2.4.11 Intensive listening: The term "intensive listening" refers to listening carefully to specific linguistic elements such as: words, sounds, phrases, grammatical and pragmatic elements, and phrases. While this type of listening may not typically take place in everyday life communication, it is very important for a good listener to listen intensively when it is needed and helps reach an advanced comprehension level. (Rost, 2011, p.184)

In addition to developing listening proficiency, it also facilitates language centered learning, which shapes crucial part of language long-term acquisition. (Nation & Newton, 2009), Therefore, it makes sense to include intense listening instruction, even if it is only a minor component of each lesson. Dictation, prompted repetition, and shadowing; are forms of

intensive listening practice. The first one is a good example of extensive listening, where students have to listen with all ears to the oral material and write what has been heard.

2.5. Strategies of Listening

Listening strategies are the key factors influencing listening comprehension, they demonstrate how. In this regard, three categories of listening methods were proposed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990, as cited in Gilakjani and Ahmadi, 2011, p.6): metacognitive, cognitive, and socioaffective strategies.

2.5.1. Metacognitive Strategies

They refer to the strategies the learners use to direct, plan, monitor, and assess their own learning processes, specifically for listening comprehension. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) stated that these include; advance organization (pre-viewing ideas before doing a task), selective attention (listening to specific input), self-monitoring (noticing one's performance during a task), and self-evaluation (assessing one's performance afterwards). These are also supported by strategies like conscious attention, which involves a conscious decision to allocate attention to a learning task and deflect it from distraction; auditory monitoring, where learners listen attentively in an attempt to pick out errors or knowledge deficits; and identification of the problem, where learners gain an awareness of the exact cause of a misunderstanding or difficulty.

Researchers like Flavell (1979) and Oxford (1990) indicate that such strategies are critical to understanding and language learning enhancement. Their application is contingent upon learners' proficiency level, task complexity, and individual factors such as motivation and attitude. While to a great extent underutilized in listening instruction, metacognitive processes are essential in facilitating learners to become more independent, accurate, and reflective listeners.

2.5.2 Cognitive Strategies

They refer to the mental processes directly involved in learning, those working on language input during listening activities (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). They are on-line strategies, executed at comprehension time, According to Vandergrift and Goh (2012), the most commonly employed are:

- Inferencing: Drawing on prior knowledge and context to infer the meaning of new words or expressions.
- Elaboration: Linking new information to prior learner knowledge in a way that enables understanding.
- Translation: Translating target language information into the mother tongue in a way that makes it understandable.

2.5.3 Socioaffective Strategies

These strategies refer to the techniques learners use to manage their emotions, remain motivated, and act socially in order to improve listening comprehension. While cognitive and metacognitive strategies deal with cognitive and metacognitive aspects of learning, socioaffective ones deal with emotional and interpersonal aspects (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). These include:

- Questioning for clarification: Asking for repetition or clarification from teachers or peers when something is not clear.
- Cooperation: Working with others (e.g., peer discussions or group listening activities) to gain a deeper understanding of content.
- Self-encouragement: Managing nervousness and maintaining a positive attitude by using affirmations or relaxation techniques when listening.

2.6 Theories of Listening

Buck (2001) presented what is arguably the most influential and practical model of L2 listening capacity by drawing from his earlier empirical studies (e.g., Buck, 1991, 1994; Buck & Tatsuoka, 1998; Buck, Tatsuoka, Kostin, & Phelps, 1997), he offered what he referred to as a "default listening construct" (p. 113). By offering this construct definition, he offered several suggestions for designing listening tests, such as emphasizing the linguistic features specific to listening, requiring the listener to comprehend fundamental language knowledge on various subjects and texts, evaluating inferred meanings in addition to literal meanings, taking into account how to handle knowledge-dependent interpretations of the text, and avoiding tests that evaluate general cognitive abilities. (Buck, 2001)

The Functional Cognitive Model for L2 listening comprehension created by Vandergri and Goh (2012) was based on Levelt's (1983, 1989, 1995) Speech Production Model. Levelt's model of creating and monitoring speech is significant even though it is strictly a speaking model since it conceptualizes both one-way and two-way (interactive) listening by combining the speaking and comprehension components into a single model. According to Vandergri and Goh's (2012) concept, an acoustic-phonetic processor perceives sound signals to initiate listening. While being processed for meaning, this information is kept very briefly in working memory. The sounds are then replaced by the next incoming one. After that, speech sounds are analyzed using both top-down and bottom-up processing. While being processed for meaning, this information is kept very briefly in working memory. The noises are then replaced by the next incoming sound. After that, the speech sounds are analyzed using both top-down and bottom-up processing. The next step is parsing, which includes segmenting the utterance to extract meaning from the phonetic representations of the heard sounds.

Both syntactic and semantic clues are used in this segmentation process. Once more, the processing activity is carried out in parallel rather than linear fashion, with top-down processing

informing bottom-up processing and vice versa, until a logical mental image of the spoken utterance's meaning is produced. The listener accomplishes this by fusing their long-term memory knowledge with their mental image of the uttered sounds. The listener stores their interpretation of what they have heard in long-term memory after forming a mental image of it.

2.7 Factors of Listening Comprehension

Listening comprehension of both first (L1) and second (L2) languages is driven by a range of factors. These factors can be conveniently placed under bottom-up and top-down processes, which jointly work towards enabling or blocking understanding.

2.7.1 Bottom-Up Factors

There are some specific factors that impact this process the bottom-up processing entails decoding the linguistic input starting at the level of sounds and moving towards words and grammar:

-Phonological Identification: Difficulty with sounds, edges of words, or weak forms can interfere with comprehension, especially in L2 (Field, 2008).

-Lexical Knowledge: Vocabulary limitation hinders learners from recognizing and understanding spoken words (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

-Syntactic Parsing: Sentence structure comprehension is necessary to infer meaning and L2 learners are often challenged with high-level or new syntax (Buck, 2001).

-Acoustic Features: Elision, rapid rate of speech, and connected speech decrease the level of intelligibility and overload the listener's processing capacity (Goh, 2000).

2.7.2 Top-Down Factors

The determinants of top-down processing employ prior knowledge and expectations to make inferences of meaning from the input.:

- Background Knowledge: Common knowledge relative to the topic allows listeners to predict and make inferences of meaning, which complements gaps in linguistic knowledge (Rost, 2011).

- Contextual Cues: Listeners use context, or discourse clues to predict and interpret meaning (Vandergrift, 2007).

- Schematic Knowledge: Common cultural and experience knowledge helps construct meaning for implied or indirect meaning (Anderson & Lynch, 1988).

2.7.3 Other Factors

Aside from process strategies, other variables affect listening comprehension:

- Working Memory Capacity: Temporary holding and processing access is necessary to construct meaning in real time (Field, 2008).

- Affective Factors: Confidence, anxiety, and motivation influence the capacity of listeners to listen and retain oral material (Goh, 2000).

- Exposure and Practice: Practicing with different accents, speech rates, and varieties of discourse improves L1 and L2 listening skills (Rost, 2011).

Overall, listening comprehension is not merely a matter of sound decoding or word recognition, but also a cognition-guided process that depends on experience, context, and personal variables. Both bottom-up and top-down processes have to work together for effective comprehension.

2.8 Obvious Problems of Listening Comprehension

- Fast Speech (Speed of Delivery): Rapid spoken delivery in English compresses sound and makes word boundaries difficult to discern, thus hindering L2 learners' understanding (Goh, 2000; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).
- Distortion of Word Boundaries: When speaking naturally, native speakers run words together, and it is difficult for L2 listeners to untangle them. Such boundary obscuring renders lexical identification difficult (Field, 2003).
- Weak Forms: The majority of grammatical words (e.g., to, of, have) are pronounced in their reduced forms in connected speech. Learners fail to recognize these unstressed forms (Cauldwell, 2013).
- Elision: Elision refers to the omission of sounds in continuous speech (e.g., friendship as frenship), which goes against the learners' expectation from written forms (Brown, 1990).
- Assimilation: It occurs when adjacent sounds influence each other (e.g., good boy as gob bɔɪ), creating unheard sound sequences that are hard to interpret (Roach, 2009).
- Gemination: When two identical consonants occur across word boundaries, learners may confuse the length or shorten it to a single sound, affecting segmentation (Ladefoged & Johnson, 2015).
- Stress and Rhythm: English is stress-timed, meaning stressed syllables occur at more or less regular intervals. L2 learners from syllable-timed language backgrounds may struggle to cope with this rhythm, leading to confusion (Gilbert, 2008).

- Intonation: Intonation conveys grammatical, attitudinal, or discourse-level information. Misinterpretation of intonation pattern can result in breakdown of speaker intention comprehension. (Cutler et al., 1997)

2.8.1 Less obvious L2 Listening Problems

The lack of socio-cultural knowledge, factual or the contextual knowledge of the target language. These types of knowledge could be an obstacle to understanding since according to Anderson and Lynch (1988), such a background of non-linguistic cues are very vital in supporting students' comprehension of the target language which is the means to express its culture. As they said: "Gaps in our understanding of the L2 culture, of the connotations and allusions to hand available to native speakers, can pose barriers to understanding". (Anderson, Lynch, 1998, p.35)

Lack of attention and concentration: while listening, the students can absorb every word uttered by the speaker; but still have enough vagueness in the context of the speech. As Rost said: "Students are having trouble with following instructions due to obvious inattention and lack of concentration. These students are perhaps failing to acclimatize to the high degree of distraction of a typical classroom" (Rost, 1994, p.119).

The content: The structure of content or organization of information in an oral passage has a perceptible role in learner's understanding. Thus a well-organized passage should be marked by the chronological and logical order of occurrence to make it easy for the students' listening comprehension, and any flash back or break noted to make the information more difficult to be understood. (Anderson and Lynch, 1988).

2.9 Teaching Listening Comprehension

Listening comprehension is an important skill to be taught in language learning, and it is composed of two parts; the bottom up (focus on sounds, words, and punctuation) and top

down (refers to using background knowledge and context). Ur facilitates this process by mentioned in next:

2.9.1 Bottom Up

Teachers and trainers help students improve bottom-up listening skill through training their ears. They use different exercises and techniques to achieve this goal. Ur (1984) mentioning the following:

1. Use of Laboratory Material: Mostafa (2005, p.76) mentioned that both Howatt and Dakin (1974) believe that the main purpose of teaching listening to foreign language learners is to help them comprehend the speaker's pronunciation or accent, as well as their grammar and vocabulary. Teachers and trainers can use laboratory materials in order to strengthen and enhance their students' listening ability for a successful teaching process. For example, dictation activities in the laboratory require students not only to correctly write down words and punctuate them; but also to accurately listen to what is being said. Dakin (1974, p.111) argues that students experience four major problems in listening and writing a passage accurately. The problems are:
 - Distinguishing sounds: For example, being able to differentiate pairs like "ship" and "sheep," or "bit" and "beat."
 - Recognizing homophones: For example, knowing the difference in context between "to, too, two"
 - Recognizing words and phrases in connected speech: Where rapid speech combines syllables, such as "I scream" and "ice cream", or "Did you" sounded as "didja".
 - Recognizing intonation patterns: For example, knowing the difference between "You're coming?" (a question) and "You're coming." (a statement).

2. Recognizing Sounds (Phonemes and Words): Initially, students must be trained to hear and mimic the sounds of a specific word. The teacher provides words as they are being spoken extremely clearly by a native speaker. This allows students to recognize words with sounds in the correct way. Ur said: "At the early stages students need practice in hearing and saying the sounds of isolated words as they are ideally pronounced by a native speaker" (1984, p. 36).
3. Repetitions for Building Habit : Teachers must be aware that learning new sounds does not depend on thinking hard. It depends on developing habits (behaviorist model) through repetitions. They present the sounds and students copy, repeat and identify it many times. As a result, students will be able to listen more attentively without over-thinking. Ur mentioned: "Learning new sounds is not a particularly intellectual activity: it is more a matter of acquiring habits" (1984, p. 36).
4. Perception of Small Differences (Minimal Pairs): Teachers utilize minimal pairs, for example, "peach" and "pitch", both words are not identical in pronunciation. Students are supposed to listen to them and tell whether the words are similar or not. This trains their ears to notice and distinguish small details and differences in sounds.
5. Employing Infrequent or Nonsense Words: The use of uncommon words or invented words, forces students to listen carefully to the sound, not guesses from meaning. This is helpful for sound recognition, as Ur claimed: "If students do not know the meaning of the words, they are more likely to use their ears carefully" (1984, p. 36).

2.9.2 Top Down

1. Note Taking :

Flowerdew (1994), and other researchers agreed that: “note-taking aids the encoding process by increasing: meaningful chunking and thereby encoding of information, general level of attention, general effort, and assimilation of new and old information “(p76).

This emphasizes the importance of Note-taking as it supports student’s listening comprehension, due to processing and organization of information while listening. It is referred to as the encoding process, where students apply their prior knowledge to connect new ideas in the lecture by taking notes.

2. Prioritizing Training over Testing:

The main purpose of these exercises is to train students and give them practice not testing. In case students make mistakes by providing incorrect answers, this means that the method is insufficient and needs to be revised. Ur argued that: "The object of such exercises is to train not to test: if students are consistently getting wrong answers, then the practice is useless" (1984, p. 36).

Conclusion

Lastly, listening comprehension is one of the key skills in second language learning and acquisition. Far from a passive skill, listening is an active mental process since learners must decode sounds, apply linguistic competence, and make inferences from context. Listening comprehension is a multifaceted process involving bottom-up and top-down strategies interacting to guide oral language comprehension. Through understanding the intricacy of listening and using the appropriate instructional techniques, instructors can enhance learners' listening comprehension, and their language capacity.

Chapter three

Field of investigation

Chapter three

Field of investigation

introduction	53
3.1 students' questionnaire	53
3.1.1 population of the study	53
3.1.2 description of students' questionnaire	54
section one: general information (q1–q4)	54
section two: (non) native accents: (q5_q16)	54
section three: listening comprehension (q17_q25).....	55
section four: impact of (non)native accents on listening comprehension (q26_q34).....	55
3.1.3 administration of students' questionnaire:	56
3.1.4 data analysis and interpretations:	57
3.4.1.4analysis of results and findings from students' questionnaire:.....	57
section one: general information	57
section three: listening comprehension	76
conclusion.....	115

Introduction

The present chapter is concerned to the analysis and interpretation of the data collected through the student's questionnaire, which was conducted as part of this research on effect of native and nonnative English accents on listening comprehension. The aim is to explore how second-year English students at the University of 8 Mai 1945 - Guelma perceive and experience different English accents in both academic and non-academic contexts, and how these accents influence their ability to comprehend different English accents thus,, This chapter starts with a brief description of the population involved in this study .Then, the students' answers are analyzed and explained based on the five parts of the questionnaire Finally, it outlines how the questionnaire was administered, summarizes the main findings, and discusses students' suggestions and implications for future pedagogical practices and research related to listening comprehension and accent variation.

3.1 Students' Questionnaire

3.1.1 Population of the Study

Frankel and Wallen (2006, p. 476), Saïd "The population of interest is typically a group of persons who possess a certain characteristic (or set of characteristics)." For this research, the population consisted of second-year English students at the Department of English, University of 8 Mai 1945 - Guelma, during the academic year 2024 2025. The total number of students enrolled in the second year was 150.However, only 90 students responded to the questionnaire, which represents a response rate of 60%. The sample included students of various ages and backgrounds, and was chosen to provide a representative reflection of students' experiences and perceptions regarding native and non-native English accents and their impact on listening comprehension. As stated by Hornby (2000, as cited in makhoulfi, p. 67), a sample is defined as "the selected number of people from the whole population." We selected these students specifically as they were taught listening skills in their first year and therefore already understand the skill and how it works. We also wished to conduct an experiment from the beginning since our topic is relevant to listening. Second-year students have two hours of oral expression per week, and we thought that was a sufficient time frame in which to conduct the

experiment. However, due to some setbacks and personal issues, the experiment was eventually abandoned.

3.1.2 Description of Students' Questionnaire

The current questionnaire consists of thirty-four (34) questions, and is divided into five main sections. It includes open/closed-ended multiple-choice questions aimed at gathering both quantitative and qualitative data. Each section targets a specific variable or area related to the central topic of the study: the effect of native and non-native accents on listening comprehension.

Section One: General Information (Q1–Q4)

The first section deals with personal information about the students. It is consisting of four questions: students' gender (Q1), age (Q2), and their native language (Q3), and how many years they have studied English (Q4). This helps give a clear picture of who the students are and whether these personal details affect how they understand different English accents.

Section two: (Non) Native Accents: (Q5_Q16)

This section deals with students' exposure to native and non-native English accents. It consists of twelve questions: how often they listen to native accents and (non)-native accents (Q5), which native accents they are most familiar with outside classes (Q6), and which non-native accents they know such as Arabic or French (Q7). It also asks how they recognize the accent is non-native accent (Q8), and which type of accent they find easier to understand (Q9). Then it focuses on how often they hear non-native accents in class (Q10) and outside class on social media or TV (Q11). Finally, it asks if their teachers expose them to non-native accents; if yes in which courses, and if yes which non-native accents are used (Q12) and whether teachers expose them to native accents too (Q13). And what they feel or think when they listen to non -native English speakers (Q14), what strategies they use to overcome accent difficulties (Q15), and if they feel anxious when they listen to unfamiliar accent difficulties (Q16). This

section helps to show and understand if students are given the chance to hear different non - native varieties in classes or even outside classes and what they feel when they listen to unfamiliar accents.

Section Three: Listening Comprehension (Q17_Q25)

This section deals with listening comprehension. It consists of nine questions. It begins with how students rate their own listening comprehension in general (Q17), and how they usually try to improve their listening comprehension; such as: watching movies, listening to podcasts, or talking with native/non-native speakers (Q18).

It also asks what type of listening process students use, like bottom-up, top-down, interactive, cognitive, or metacognitive (Q19). Then, it explores the difficulties they face while listening, such as unfamiliar accent, unfamiliar vocabulary, low volume, or cultural differences (Q20). The section also deals with questions about the learning strategies they use whenever they listen to something. (Q21). And which types of comprehension exercises/speech varieties they use when they listen to sth (Q22) and what instructions teachers they use during all stages of listening before listening, while listening, or after listening (Q23) it focuses also on the different types of listening their teacher trains them in, like Discriminative, Appreciative, or Intensive listening (Q24). Finally, it asks about the roles teachers play during listening sessions, such as being a storyteller, engineer, doctor, or tailor (Q25). This section helps to understand how students experience listening in class and what affects their ability to understand spoken English.

Section Four: Impact of (Non)Native Accents on Listening Comprehension (Q26_Q34)

The fourth section deals with the impact of native and non-native English accents on listening comprehension. This section consists of nine questions. It starts with students' confidence when they listen to different types of speakers, whether native, non-native, or both (Q26). Then, how they believe accents affect their listening comprehension whether it

improves, decreases, or stays the same when listening to native or non-native accents (Q27). Students are also asked if they think their listening comprehension can be improved by exposure to different native or non-native accents (Q28), and whether they believe it is important to practice listening to both Native accents or Non-native accents (Q29).

Next, they are asked if they have experienced difficulty understanding certain accents, and if so, to name which ones (Q30). The section continues by asking which linguistic features of non-native accents make listening more difficult, such as fast speech, stress, intonation, or speech rate (Q31). Then, the strategies students use to improve their listening across different accents, like Watching movies, using subtitles (Q32). Students are also asked which type of accent they find easier to understand during listening tests (Q33).

Finally, the last question in this section looks at whether exposure to unfamiliar accents helps reduce students' anxiety during listening tasks (Q34). The final question in this section (Q35) is an open-ended one that invites students to share their personal suggestions, opinions, or final thoughts related to the topic of native and non-native accents in listening comprehension. This section helps to understand students' views on how accents affect their listening performance and how they try to cope with accent-related challenges.

3.1.3 Administration of students' Questionnaire:

The students' questionnaire (Appendix A) was distributed to a sample of 150 students from a total population of 250 second year English students at the university of 8 mai 1945-Guelma, However, however; only 90 students completed and returned the questionnaire. During the second semester of the academic year 2024/2025. The sample number was chosen based on the published article by Krejci & Morgan (1970), "Determining Sample Size for Research Activities». Additionally, the selection of such a sample was based on the consideration that second-year students are almost suitable for assessing the impact of exposure to different

dialects on comprehension because of their learning level, the questionnaire was distributed in printed form, and it took 15–20 minutes to complete.

The questionnaire was introduced with a brief explanation of its purpose: to gather data about effect of native and non-native accents on students' listening comprehension. Students were informed that their responses would remain anonymous and would be used as a solution for academic research. All participants completed the questionnaire voluntarily and independently.

3.1.4 Data Analysis and Interpretations:

3.4.1.4 Analysis of Results and Findings from Students' Questionnaire:

Section one: General Information

Question One: Specify your gender.

A. male B. Female

Table 1 3.1.1

participants' gender

Options	num	Percentage (%)
A	20	22,22 (%)
B	70	77,78 (%)
Total	90	100 (%)

Question Two: What is your age?

A. 18-20 B. 21-23 C. 24-26 D. over 26

Table 2 3.1.2

Participants' Age.

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	41	45.56(%)
B	36	40(%)
C	10	11.11(%)
D	3	3.33(%)
Total	90	100(%)

Question Three:What is your native language?

A. Arabic B. berberC. French D. Other

Table 3 3.1.3

Students' native language.

Options		
A	89	98,89 (%)
B	00	00 (%)
C	1	1,11 (%)
D	00	00 (%)
Total	90	100(%)

The purpose of third question is to specify the participants' native languages since it has an important impact on listening comprehension. Being aware of the linguistic background of the participants allows us understand how their capacity to understand both of native and nonnative English accents will be affected by their familiarity with specific phonological features.

As expected that, the largest majority of students said that their mother language is Arabic, and 89 out of 90 participants (98.89%) are included in this category, while only one (1.11%) selected French as their mother tongue. and none of the student stated that Berber or any other language was their first language.

The collected data shows that participants speak the same native language, this indicates a high degree of linguistic homogeneity within the sample.

Question Four: How long have you been studying English?

A. Less than 9 years B. 9 years C. More than 9 years

Table 4 3.1.4

English language duration of study among participants

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	42	46,67(%)
B	26	28,89(%)
C	22	24,44(%)
Total	90	100(%)

The aim of this question was to recognize how long participants have been exposed to acquiring learning English, because the duration of their study affects their receptive listening comprehension skills, the answers of these questions are relevant as it has big impact in answering the next sections.

As displayed in the Table 4.1.4, 42 students (46,67%) said that they have been studying English for less than 9 years, (28,89%) of students who have been exposed to English language for more than 9 years, whereas 22 of them (24,44%) declared that they studied have been English for more than 9 years.

Section two: (Non)-Native Accents

Question Five: How often do you listen to English spoken by

A. Daily B. Weekly C. Monthly D. Rarely E. Never

Table 5 3.1.5

Frequency of Fisting to English Spoken by Native Speakers.

Native speakers	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	24	26,67%
B	32	35,55 %
C	18	20 %
D	16	17,78 %
E	00	00%
Total	90	100(%)

From the results displayed in Table 3.1.5, the majority of participants are exposed to native speakers accent at least once a week (35, 55%), and by (26,67%) daily. This indicates that despite the presence of English language in their academic lives as shown in question number 04 (53, 33 %) of participants have been studying English for nine years or more, only (26, 67%) listening to native daily. That is to say less than one-third of them are in daily exposure with the native accent, which is not sufficient for acquiring and developing advanced listening comprehension skills through pronunciation, intonation etc.

Only (20 %) of students listens to native English monthly, and (17,78 %) rarely which indicates a limited and irregular access to native English accent whereas none reported that they “never” listened to native speakers.

Question Five: How often do you listen to English spoken by Non-Native Speakers

A. Daily B. Weekly C. Monthly D. Rarely E. Never

Table 6 3.1.6

Frequency Of listening To English Spoken By Non-Native Speakers.

Non-native speakers	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	46	51,11(%)
B	19	21,11(%)
C	14	15,56(%)

D	11	12,22(%)
E	00	00(%)
Total	90	100(%)

The results show that 51.11% of the students hear non-native English speakers daily, and 21.11% weekly. It can be taken as high exposure to non-native accents. Only 15.56% hear monthly, and 12.22% rarely, but nobody hears non-native accents "never". It suggests that non-native accents form part of the habitual listening experience of the students, which could habituate them to different speech patterns in the long term.

This finding falls directly under Section 1.5.1: Importance of Exposure to Accents in Learning from Chapter One, as it is a strong argument for the use of frequent exposure to different English accents, particularly native ones, in the development of listening skills. Core Languages (2024) and Benabddallah (2025) observe that media and authentic materials (e.g., BBC, CNN, and TV shows) also contribute significantly to the development of students' listening skills and making them used to real pronunciation and stress patterns.

Question Six: Which native English accents are you most familiar with outside classes?(You may tick more than once)

A. American B. British C. Australian D. Canadian E. Other

Table 7 3.1.7

Familiarity With Native English Accents Outside The classroom.

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	66	73,33(%)
B	30	33,33(%)
C	7	7,78(%)
D	9	10(%)
E	00	00(%)
A+B	13	14,44(%)
A+C	1	1,11(%)
A+B+C	7	7,78(%)
Total	90	100(%)

The study shows that American English accent is the most preferred, with over 73% of the respondents choosing it. This is due to the dominance of American popular culture and media, which are important sources in exposing this variety of English to students outside the classroom.

33.33% of our informants chose British accent as their second option. Less frequent than American English accent but still dominant, British English may be so dominant, because it has deep historical and didactic roots in the majority of EFL contexts.

Other native accents such as Canadian and Australian were less familiar, with 10% and 7.78% of the respondents respectively showing familiarity. Interestingly, some of the respondents also showed familiarity with more than one native accent. For instance:

- 14.44% reported knowing American and British accents.
- 7.78% reported exposure to British, Australian, and American accents.
- 1.11% There were few reports of exposure to American and Canadian accents.

These collective responses highlight the fact that while American English is very definitely the most familiar, many have also been exposed to various varieties. The overall trend, however, is that there is a strong preference for American and British English, with other regional accents being fairly unfamiliar. This suggests the need for greater and exposure to diverse native English varieties as a way of properly preparing learners for global communication. Besides

Question Seven: Which non-native English accents have you been most exposed to outside classes? (*You may tick more than once*)

A. Arabic-accent B. Chinese-accent C. Hindi-accent D. French-accent E. Spanish-accent F. Other

Table 8 3.1.8

Exposure To Non-Native Accents Beyond The Classroom.

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	71	78,89(%)
B	2	2,22(%)
C	4	4,44(%)
D	16	17,78(%)

E	5	5,55(%)
F	00	00(%)
B+C	1	1,11(%)
A+D	6	6,67(%)
A+C	1	1,11(%)
Total	90	100(%)

the table above indicates that the most exposed non-native English accent outside of the classroom is the Arabic accent (78.89%) of the learners, where Arabic is the most spoken language. because it is so common, as a result no wonder that learners are more attuned to hearing and dealing with English spoken in an Arabic accent. from Question Seven, 78.89% of students are most exposed to Arabic-accented English outside the classroom, directly verify the emphasis on the role of exposure and familiarity in listening comprehension. As explained in Chapter one (pp. 14, 20), becoming accustomed to an accent considerably enhances understanding, as students become increasingly aware to its phonological and prosodic patterns with time.

However, the French accent is less effective with 17.78% of the participants reporting exposure. This may be due to historical factors (France occupation) or geographic closeness in specific regions, where French could remain socially or educationally important.

The remaining foreign accents such as Hindi (4.44%), Spanish (5.55%), and Chinese (2.22%) were less commonly reported. These lower percentages could be results of small interactions with these accents through movies or media.

Exposure to combinations of accents was also indicated by some of the respondents:

-6.67% had exposure to both Arabic and French accents.

-Few, 1.11%, reported exposure to both Arabic and Hindi or Chinese and Hindi.

The virtual absence of "Other" category answers and the low rate of non-Arabic combinations suggest that contact with non-native English accents from people around them, being very much dominated by what the learners are exposed to in their environment.

This limited exposure to accents could influence students' overall listening understanding when they are exposed to unfamiliar varieties of English. It brings into focus the need for

conscious and varied exposure to different global English accents in education and media contexts alike to develop increased understanding and flexibility.

Question Eight: On what basis do you decide the accent is non-native? (*You may tick more than once*)

- A. Strange/changed Vowels
- B. Strange/changed Consonants
- C. Strange Stress Placement
- D. Strange Rhythm
- E. Strange Intonation
- F. Simple/ Strange Syllabic Structures
- G. Speech Rate(speed)

Table 9 3.1.9

Participants' Criteria To Identify Non Native Accent.

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	43	47,78(%)
B	21	23,33(%)
C	20	22,22(%)
D	27	30(%)
E	23	25,55(%)
F	16	17,78(%)
G	10	11,11(%)
A+B	15	16,67(%)
A+ D	19	21,11(%)
A+B+D	16	17,78(%)
A+B+F	5	5,55(%)
C+D+		8,89(%)
A+B+G	7	7,78(%)
TOTAL	90	100(%)

The results from Table 3.1.9, provide some insight into phonetic on which students

rely in order to identify an English accent as non-native. The participants were allowed to check more than one characteristic, which is reflective of the multidimensional nature of accent perception.

The highest cited indicator was strange or changed vowel sounds (47.78%), followed by strange rhythm (30%) and intonation (25.55%). The phonological features such as changed or consonants were mentioned by 23.33% of the respondents, which would mean that while consonant shifts are being noticed, they are less prominent than vowel changes. Stress pattern (22.22%) and syllable structure (17.78%) were mentioned less frequently, which may mean lower metalinguistic awareness for these features among learners or their lower metalinguistic awareness.

A few respondents ticked combinations of the features. For example:

- 21.11% recognized a conjunction of vowels and rhythm.
- 17.78% recognized a conjunction of consonants, vowels, and rhythm.
- 16.67% selected vowels and consonants conjunct.

These multi-feature answers prove that accent perception is not based on a single phonological cue but on a group in of natives from the norm.

Notably, speech rate was the only one mentioned by 11.11%, and this could be interpreted that even if speed is a factor that might affect comprehension, it would not be considered a main principal of "non-nativeness."

Furthermore, those that included speech rate were relatively rare (7.78%), for example, "strange stress placement + rhythm + speed" (8.89%) and "vowels + consonants + speed" .

More generally, these results indicate that learners perceive non-native English accents primarily on the basis of rhythm and melody of sounds rather individual sounds, namely modified vowels and rhythm, rather than isolated segmental errors. It has an associated pedagogical implication: instruction in listening comprehension may be improved by focusing more on training learners to read rhythmic and intonational patterns of different English.

Question Nine: Which type of accent do you find easier to understand? (*You may*

tick more than once)

- a. Native English accents
- b. Non-native English accents
- c. Both are equally understandable
- d. It depends on the speaker
- e. other

Table 10 3.1.10

Participants' Perceptions Of Accents Comprehensibility.

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	39	43,3(%)
B	19	21,11(%)
C	28	31,11(%)
D	22	24,44(%)
E	00	00(%)
A+&D	2	2,22(%)
A+B+C+D	4	4,44(%)
C+D	2	2,22(%)
Total	90	100(%)

The responses are certainly in support of the native English accents since 43.3% of the respondents indicated that they understand them better. It shows that the native forms such as British or American English are more prevalent and probable to be understood by the students due to greater exposure, of pronunciation used in teaching and frequent use on the media.

however, 21.11% of the students answered that non-native English accents were more understandable. This may be because they are exposed to regional or local varieties of non-native English, particularly if the accents used are the same as theirs.

Moreover, 31.11% of respondents mentioned that both native and non-native accents were equally comprehensible, indicating certain flexibility on the part of some students. Yet another 24.44% claimed that comprehensibility differed with the speaker, underlining the role

of personal clarity, fluency and manner of speaking as against accent.

A small percentage went for both combined answers, 2.22% for both "native English accents" and "it depends on the speaker", and 4.44% for all combined. These responses show a good perception by some of the students that comprehension depends not just on the type of accent, few of students combined answers, with 2.22% by selecting both "native English accents" and "it depends on the speaker", and 4.44% selecting all together. These are examples of a sophisticated understanding by some students, who appreciate that understanding relies not only on the kind of accent, but on a number of connected factors.

In summary, even though native accents are normally more comfortable to listen to, the majority of students are flexible or conditionally inclined, and therefore the difficulty in understanding native accents cannot be ruled out.

Question Ten: How often are you exposed to non-native English accents in class other than your teacher's?

A. Frequently B. Occasionally C.always D. Rarely E. Never

Table 11 3.1.11

Classroom Exposure to Non-Native English Accents from other Sources than the Teacher.

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	32	35,55(%)
B	28	31,11(%)
C	15	16,67(%)
D	11	12,22(%)
E	4	4,44(%)
TOTAL	90	100(%)

The findings suggest that learners gain varied levels of exposure to non-native English accents within class work, with the exception of the accent of their own teacher. The most frequent rating given was "Frequently," which was received by 35.55% of the participants, and then "Occasionally" 31.11%. The combined frequency of both the responses suggests that more than 66% of the learners are moderately or frequently exposed to non-native accents in class with, an acceptable level of diversity in listening inputs.

On the other hand, only 16.67% marked "Equally" or "Always" exposed, and even repeated exposure still remains the norm for the majority of classroom mates. More critically, fewer than 12.22% and 4.44% of students marked occasional or no exposure, respectively, indicating that there do exist some classrooms without sufficient variation in English language spoken models.

The difference in response tells us that while there is exposure to non-native pronunciation in most classrooms, it is not being applied in all learning environments. The findings may suggest the necessity of greater purposeful and balanced use of different English accents to expose students to real communication found in actual contexts.

Question eleven:How often are you exposed to non-native English accents on social media/Internet/Tv?

A. Frequently B. Occasionally C. always D. Rarely E. Never F. Never

Table 12 3.1.12

Frequency Of Exposure to Non-Native English Accents Through Digital and Media Platforms.

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	29	32,22(%)
B	16	17,78(%)
C	24	26,67(%)
D	21	23,33(%)
E	00	00(%)
TOTAL	90	100(%)

The results Table 3.1.12, indicates that the accents of non-native English are often encountered by students on media such as social media, the internet, and television. 58.89% of the participants have chosen either "Frequently" (32.22%) or "Always" (26.67%), suggesting that more than half of the sample are exposed to different native English accents constantly through media.

On the contrary, 23.33% responded "Rarely" to being exposed to it, and 17.78% chose "Occasionally", so there is still some exposure. What is remarkable is that none of the students responded with "Never", so all the participants are exposed to non-native English accents to some degree through media.

These findings imply the important impact by audiovisual and web-based media in acquiring students' listening experience. Non-native speakers of English accents' available on the web may bring about learning students' enhanced adaptability and understanding capacities outside classroom settings..

Question Twelve: Does your teachers intentionally expose you to non-native English accents other than his/her accent?

A. Yes B. NO

Table 13 3.1.13

Teachers' Intentional Use of Non-Native Accents English Accent other than His/Her Accent.

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	20	22,22(%)
B	70	77,78(%)
TOTAL	90	100(%)

Most of the participants (77.78%) indicated that their instructors do not intentionally expose them to other non-native English accents aside from their own. There were only 22.22% who testified to exposure. This clearly indicates a deficiency in accent diversity among classroom instructional activities or listening resources. The extremely low proportion of intentional exposure verifies that most instructors would rather use native or standard types, which may maintain students familiar with the full range of Native English accents they will encounter in real communication.

- If yes which course

Table 14 3.1.14

Courses in Which Students are Exposed to Non-Native English Accent.

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
Oral expression	12	13,33(%)
Phonetics	7	7,78(%)
Literature	6	10(%)

Linguistics	00	00(%)
Other	00	00(%)
Oral expression &phonetics	5	5,55(%)
TOTAL	90	100(%)

Among the respondents who claimed to have been exposed to non-native accents, oral expression is the most common method of exposure, with 13.33% of the respondents opting for it. Phonetics comes second at 7.78%, and literature at 10%. Interestingly, 5.55% of the respondents reported being exposed to such accents via both oral expression and phonetics classes. None of the respondents chose linguistics or other courses, which could indicate limited integration of accent exposure throughout the wider curriculum. Stress on spoken expression lies naturally with the ability of listening comprehension, yet the generally low figures in all courses indicate scope for improvement in the curriculum.

- If yes which non-native accent does your teacher primarily use in listening materials?
(You can tick more than one)

Table 15 3.1.15

Listening Materials in Which Non-Native English Accent Used by The Teacher.

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
Arabic accent	11	12,22(%)
Chinese accent	1	1,11(%)
Hindi accent	3	3,33(%)
French accent	1	1,11(%)
Spanish accent	00	00(%)
mixed	4	4,44(%)
other	00	00(%)

When asked about the specific non-native accents, Arabic was the most frequent (12.22%), Hindi (3.33%), mixed accents (4.44%). Mixed accents French (1.11% each). However Spanish and others did not receive any mention. These findings show that although some effort at accent diversity is being made in the introduction, it is both limited in scope and

frequency. It could be that the common use of Arabic is due to regional or contextual familiarity. However, the findings overall indicate a missed opportunity to provide learners with greater auditory flexibility.

Question Thirteen: Does your teachers intentionally expose you to native English accents?

A. Yes B. No

Table 16 3.1.16

Teachers' Intentional Use of Native Accents English Accent other Than His/Her Accent.

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	65	72,22(%)
B	25	27,78(%)

72.22% of the respondents confirmed that their teachers consciously expose them to native English accents, 27.78% who responded said no. This demonstrates a strong pedagogical focus towards increased awareness of learners to native varieties of English, in line with common EFL practices that most cherish native-speaker standards, especially in listening practice and course materials. Such exposure is likely to enhance students' awareness of widely accepted models of pronunciation.

- If yes which course

Table 17 3.17

Courses in Which Students are Exposed to Non-Native English Accent.

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
Oral expression	48	53,33(%)
Phonetics	42	46.67(%)
Literature	00	00(%)
Linguistics	42	46,67(%)
Other	1 translation	1,11(%)
TOTAL		

The most frequently mentioned course in which students are introduced to native English accents is oral expression (53.33%), followed by Phonetics (46.67%). No participants specified exposure in linguistics or literature, one participant selected translation under "other" courses.

The emphasis on exposure in oral expression and linguistics courses suggests a possible separation of listening practice and suggests that these are viewed as more practical or application-oriented courses where exposure to accent is prioritized.

- If yes which non-native accent does your teacher primarily use in listening materials?(You can tick more than one)

Table 18 3.1.18

Listening Materials in Which Non-Native English Accent Used by the Teacher.

Options	requency(N)	Percentage%
American	15	16,67(%)
British	22	24,44(%)
Otherenglish accents	00	00(%)
Mixed	53	58,89(%)

Among the students' exposure to native accents, mixed native accents were the most commonly mentioned at 58.89%, with 58.89% of the respondents opting for this. This suggests that teachers may use different native models rather than a single one, which can be beneficial to the students by providing flexibility in perception. British English was applied individually more (24.44%) than American English (16.67%), while both were mentioned. None of the participants indicated being exposed to Australian or Canadian English accents, indicating narrow diversity in the native accent group. Heavy reliance on British and American varieties reflects typical language instruction standards but records the beginning of a wider diversity when mixed models are being used.

Question Fourteen: Whenever you listen to non-native English speakers, do you? (*You may tick more than once*)

- A. think they are less intelligent
- B. think they are from lower class/social status
- C. get annoyed
- D. feel impatient
- E. feel frustrated

F. feel anxious

G.other

Table 19 3.1.19

Participants Reactions towards Listening to Non-Native English

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	12	13,33(%)
B	10	11,11(%)
C	29	32,22(%)
D	6	6,67(%)
E	17	18,89(%)
F	00	00(%)
G	16 studentanswered that they don't face any of the following problems mentioned in the table. "Feel Ok"	17,78(%)

from Table 3.1.19 ,The most common response was annoyance (32.22%), which shows that nearly a third of the participants get bothered. Frustration (18.89%) was also significant, showing that problems with understanding can create negative emotional responses. Impatience (6.67%), though less frequent, also reflects a reluctance on the listener's part to communicate with other varieties of English.

while 13.33% of the participants associate non-native speech with lower intelligence, however 11.11% with lower social class, reflecting the existence of stereotypes and social bias against non-native speakers, unexpectedly, none of the students selected "anxiety", which implies that the emotional discomfort is more judgmental than self-reflective. In contrast, 17.78% of the students reported feeling "okay", i.e., they do not hold negative attitudes or feelings towards non-native accents, which reflects tolerance, familiarity, or neutrality. This stands in contrast to Table 16, where 45.55% of students said that they feel anxious when listening to a unfamiliar accents, and 26.67% are anxious sometimes. This comparison reveals that while participants might not characterize their experiences as anxiety in a specific situation, however facing unfamiliar accents can still cause emotional stress, supporting the idea that accent variation affects learners both emotionally and cognitively in complex ways

This finding aligns with what is presented in Chapter One of the dissertation (pp. 17–18), it is discussed in detail that listeners do form negative attitudes towards non-native speech merely because of accent, irrespective of the actual language ability of the speaker. It is mentioned how these reactions are being shaped by stereotypes, expectations, and cultural judgment, thereby leading to biased opinions and emotional distance from the speaker. Emotional responses like frustration and annoyance, as observed in the results, confirm that non-native accents can lead to affective listening barriers, especially when students cannot handle variation. The fact that 17.78% of the students responded "okay" confirms what Chapter One (p. 22) asserts, that being exposed to accents reduces adverse prejudice and increases understanding. This supports the argument that teaching with the various English accents can help students become tolerant and develop their listening abilities.

Question fifteen: What strategies do you use to overcome accent difficulties? (*You may tick more than once*)

- A. Listening more frequently
- B. Watching movies & series
- C. Using subtitles
- D. Asking for repetition
- E. Other

Table 20 3.1.20

Strategies used by Participants to Overcome Accent Difficulties.

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	31	34,44(%)
B	31	34 ,44(%)
C	26	28,89(%)
D	28	31,11(%)
G	00	00(%)
A+B+C	2	2,22(%)
C+D	4	4,44(%)
B+D	6	6,66(%)

The assessment of information on techniques used to deal with challenges of English accent comprehension shows students primarily utilize a combination of various strategies simultaneously. The most common chosen techniques were listening more frequently and watching movies and TV shows, both chosen by 34.44% of responders. They are followed by repetition (31.11%) and watching subtitles (28.89%). The prevalence of multiple combined strategies i.e., watching a movie and repeating (6.66%), subtitle reading and repeating (4.44%), and the use of all three strategies combined (2.22%) unambiguously shows that the majority of students apply a combination of exposure, audiovisual input, and active clarification to overcome comprehension problems. The fact that no one said "Other" proves the use of real-life, everyday strategies over experimental or other strategies. Overall, students use repeated and combined exposure as their first means of coping with new accents, showing a proactive and adaptive listening style towards difficulties.

Question sixteen: Do you feel anxious when listening to unfamiliar accents?

A. Yes B. No C. Sometimes

Table 21 3.1.21

Participants Anxiety Towards Listening to Unfamiliar Accent.

Options	Frequency(N)	Percentage%
A	41	45,55(%)
B	25	27,78(%)
C	24	26,67(%)

Table 3.1.21, shows that nearly half of the students (45.55%) become anxious while hearing unfamiliar accents, while about a quarter (26.67%) get anxious at times, and a bit over a quarter (27.78%) never become anxious. This is a sign that unfamiliar accents can be a huge cause of listening anxiety for an immense number of learners, indicating the affective dilemma that accent variation presents in language comprehension. However, in Table 14, instead of answering by saying that they are nervous or anxious, participants just stated that they feel "annoyed" or "frustrated", and some even judge the speaker's intelligence or social class. That is to say some students may not notice that they are anxious however they respond with negative attitudes instead. This indicates learners expressing their uncomfortable feelings differently ; some feel it and keep it inside, others translate it into judging or getting irritated. This means that teachers must become more aware of students' emotional response as they are listening, not just focus on

the language.

Section Three: Listening Comprehension

Question seventeen:How do you rate your listening comprehension ability of English in general?

A. Very good B. Good C. Moderate D. Poor E. Very Poor

Table 22 3.1.21

Self-rate of listening comprehension ability.

Options	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
Very good	26	28,89(%)
Good	37	41,11(%)
Modurate	20	22,22(%)
Poor	7	7,78(%)
Very poor	00	00(%)

Table 3.1.21, shows that the majority of respondents describe their English listening comprehension skill as good (41.11%) or very good (28.89%), followed by a minority of respondents who mark it as moderate (22.22%), and few who rate it as poor (7.78%). Notably, no respondent marks it as very poor, reflecting overall positive self-assessment. This trust in listening capacity can possibly explain why many participants report actively using mixed strategies for dealing with accent-related challenges (observed in Table 18).

Question eighteen:How do you usually improve your listening comprehension? (*You may tick more than once*)

- A. Watching movies/TV in English
- B. Listening to podcasts
- C. Talking with native/non-native speakers
- D. Practicing with listening exercises
- E. Others

Table 23 3.1.22

Strategies to Improve Listening Comprehension.

Options	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	18	20(%)
B	21	23,33(%)
C	21	23,33(%)
D	33	36,67(%)
E	00	00(%)
A+B	4	4,44(%)
A+C+D	3	3,33(%)
C+D	9	10(%)

Table 3.1.22 indicates that students employ multiple strategies to improve their listening comprehension of English, with the most used being practicing exercises to listen (36.67%), followed by listening to podcasts and discussing things with native/non-native speakers (each 23.33%), and watching English movies or TV (20%). There were also reported combined approaches, such as using podcasts and films together (4.44%), putting together movies, discussion, and practice (3.33%), and bringing together discussion and exercises (10%). These results indicate that learners are favorable to interactive and participatory approaches and use more than one method to enhance their listening skills—consistent with their overall self-report of confident ability in Table 17, and consistent with an active stance towards surmounting previous difficulties in which unfamiliar or non-native accents had been involved.

These findings are discussed in Chapter One, specifically in Sections 1.5.2 and 1.6.1 (pp. 21–22), where it explains that exposure to a variety of English accents, and exposure to real materials like podcasts and media, can raise listening competence and allow students to adapt to international usage of English. Utilizing listening exercises also corresponds with the recommendation in Chapter One to implement explicit training procedures, such as audio-driven activities and drills, which construct decoding skills and accustom students to real speech.

In addition, it is also mentioned in Sections 5, 6, and 9 (pp. 20–24) from chapter two, where it is explained that listening is not a passive task but a highly developed cognitive process that can be activated by means of active strategies. For example, use of both bottom-up and top-down processing models (pp. 6–8) explains why a mixture of media (top-down: context-driven) and exercises (bottom-up: sound decoding) succeeds. Similarly, Section 9 (p. 24) stresses the need for teaching listening comprehension through tasks engaging learners in pre-, while-, and post-listening; the kind of approach students seem to be adopting when they combine a number of strategies.

In summary listening comprehension is best enhanced by varied, repeated exposure and task-based instruction. for teaching listening comprehension through tasks engaging learners in pre-, while-, and post-listening stage, exactly the kind of approach students seem to be adopting when they combine a number of strategies. In general, the data supports the theoretical position of each chapter: listening comprehension is best enhanced by varied, repeated exposure and task-based instruction.

Question nine-teen: Whenever you listen to sth, do you use? (*You may tick more than once*)

A. Bottom up Process

B. Top Down Process

C. Interactive Process

D. Cognitive Process

E. Metacognitive Process

Table 24 3.1.23

Listening Processes Used

Options	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	11	12,22(%)
B	20	22,22(%)
C	39	43,33(%)
D	08	08,89(%)
E	12	13,33(%)

Results validate that the majority of participants (43.33%) adopt the interactive process,

both bottom-up and top-down, to comprehend oral English. This is a well-balanced strategy, in which listeners decode linguistic items meanwhile the utilization of context and background information to build meaning. The second most common is the top-down process (22.22%), indicating that learners tend to utilize the general message first before they focus on details. In contrast, bottom-up strategies (12.22%) and metacognitive strategies (13.33%) are used less often, meaning that fewer students consciously attend to the purpose of communication or divide speech component by component. The cognitive process is the most underutilized (8.89%), meaning that few students utilize inference and prior language know-how to infer speaker intention. Such overall trend is in parallel with previous reports (Table 17 and 18), where learners had confidence in listening capacity and were concerned about various strategies for extending understanding.

These collected data support the theoretical perspectives discussed in chapter Two. It is mentioned in Sections 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 (pp. 6–8), that listening consists of bottom-up, top-down, and interactive processes. As Buck (2001) recapitulates, bottom-up listening starts with decoding "phonemes... then proceeds to syntactic and semantic levels" in order to gain literal understanding (p. 6). This aligns with 12.22% of students using bottom-up processing. On the other hand, the 22.22% utilizing the top-down methods reflect Rumelhart (1980)'s conviction that students "interpret what they hear based on their background knowledge" (p. 7).

Above all, the most utilized (43.33%) is the interactive process, as confirmed by Brown (2001) that "listening is not a simple one-way action rather it is... a combination of psychomotor and mental processes" (p. 8). The model which both decoding and interpretation occur at the same time explains why it is the most utilized process among learners—it allows flexibility in interpreting various speech inputs, such as variable accents.

Question twenty: What are the problems/difficulties you face while listening to sth: (*You may tick more than once*)

- A. Unfamiliar accent
- B. Lack of contextual information
- C. Lack of facial expressions, hand and body gestures
- D. Lots of information (cognitive load)
- E. Your low language proficiency
- F. Unfamiliar vocabulary
- G. Bad quality of the recorded materials

- H. Cultural differences/values (idioms, proverbs)
 I. Humour (fun, sarcasm, irony, etc)
 J. Cannot ask for clarification or repetition
 K. You are badly arranged far from the source of voice
 L. Low volume
 M. Length of listening
 N. Speed of listening
 O. Noisy/overcrowded classroom
 P. Lack of concentration and attention.

Table 25 3.1.24

Problems Faced While Listening

Options	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	39	43,33(%)
B	17	18,89(%)
C	08	08,89(%)
D	06	06,67(%)
E	07	07,78(%)
F	29	32,22(%)
G	2	2,22(%)
H	8	8,89(%)
I	11	12,22(%)
J	12	13,33(%)
K	16	17,78(%)
L	11	12,22(%)
M	11	12,22(%)
N	16	17,78(%)

O	3	3,33(%)
P	6	6,67(%)
A+C+D+F	26	28,89(%)
F+N	16	17,78(%)

It has been found that unfamiliar accents (43.33%) are the most prevalent listening barrier among the students consistent with earlier research (e.g., Table 16) whereby most of the students were nervous towards unfamiliar accents. The next finding is unfamiliar words (32.22%), which means linguistic factors are a prevalent driving force for comprehension barriers. Besides, the lacking context (18.89%) and listening speed (17.78%) also stand as principal issues, which point towards processing time and cognitive effort required in real-time listening activity.

Notably, an unknown accent + lack of contextual info + mind load + unknown words choice was made by 28.89% of the participants, which gives further strength to the suggestion that listening challenges have a number of reasons behind them, both linguistic and contextual.

System and environmental concerns such as poor seating arrangement (17.78%), unable to hear clearly (12.22%), and poor audio quality (2.22%) come in but are less important.

In addition, problems such as not requesting clarification (13.33%) and humour or sarcasm (12.22%) demonstrate social and pragmatic constraints in listening comprehension. The results are consistent with existing studies where the students utilized various strategies such as repetition and utilization of subtitles to upgrade their listening comprehension (see Tables 14 and 18). In general, the results suggest that linguistic and extralinguistic factors have an important impact on EFL learners' listening comprehension.

The findings confirm the theory discussed in Chapter Two Section 6 and 7 (pp. 21–22), where it is clearly stated that "unfamiliar pronunciation, lack of visual support, and speed of speech are among the most obvious difficulties faced by learners during listening tasks." which is the case of students who reported difficulty with accents and vocabulary with 43.33% .

Moreover, Section 8 (p. 23) sees less obvious difficulties, such as "pragmatic comprehension, humour, and inference," as being responsible for why students had difficulty

keeping up with humor and cultural differences. The findings also support the idea in Section 5 (p. 20) that listening encompasses both linguistic decoding and situational comprehension, and that breakdown may occur when either is lacking. This is reflected in the 28.89% who reported more than one compounded issue.

Finally, the environmental issues like "poor volume" or "classroom conditions" coincide with what is described in Section 9 (p. 24) regarding the effect that teaching conditions and materials have on listening success. The students' problems also reflect the need for more varied input and training methods, like suggested pre-, while-, and post-listening models described on pp. 9–10, that prepare listeners for more challenging and realistic listening tasks.

Question twenty-one: Whenever you listen to something, do you use these Learning Strategies? (*You may tick more than once*)

A. Advanced Organization

B. Directed Attention

C. Selective Attention

D. Self-Management

E. Monitoring

F. Comprehension Monitoring

G. Auditory Monitoring

K. Double-Check Monitoring

L. Evaluation

M. Performance Evaluation

N. Problem Identification

Table 26 3.1.25

Learning Strategies During Listening (1)

Meta-cognitive Listening Strategies	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	26	28.89(%)
B	17	18.89(%)
C	19	21.11(%)
D	21	23.33(%)

E	19	21.11(%)
F	16	17.78(%)
G	24	26.67(%)
H	15	16.67(%)
I	5	5.55(%)
J	11	12.22(%)
K	8	8.89(%)
A+C+D	15	16.67(%)
A+E+G	12	13.33(%)
F+D+L	3	3.33(%)
L+N	2	2.22(%)

The analysis of data on listening learning strategy use shows a number of meaningful trends with regard to strategy frequency of use and preference among participants. For overall learning strategies, the most frequently reported single strategy is advanced organization, chosen by approximately 29% of the respondents, followed very closely by “auditory monitoring” around 27%. Other common strategies are “self-regulation” (23%), monitoring and selective attention (each around 21%), while “evaluation and problem recognition” are the least common strategies at 5.55% and 8.89%, respectively. Combinations of strategies did happen, but with smaller frequencies, indicating that, while learners do, in fact, combine a few strategies from time to time, they turn more to single or simpler uses of strategies.

Question twenty-one: Whenever you listen to something, do you use these Learning Strategies? (*You may tick more than once*)

- A.Linguistic Inferencing.
- B.Voice Inferencing
- C.Paralinguistic or Kinesic Inferencing
- D.Extra-Linguistic Inferencing
- E.Inferencing between Parts

Table 27 3.1.26

Learning Strategies During Listening (2)

Cognitive Listening Strategies:	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
Inferencing		
A	19	21.11(%)
B	25	27.78(%)
C	14	15.55(%)
D	23	25.55(%)
E	9	10(%)

For cognitive listening strategies, inferencing was highly outstanding. Specifically, voice inferencing was used by nearly 28% of the participants, indicating the importance of noting the attributes of the speaker while hearing. Extra-linguistic inferencing and linguistic inferencing are also outstanding, both used by about 21-26% of the respondents. Part-to-part inferencing was very low at 10%. This suggests that listeners make use of a variety of contextual and linguistic signals to interpret spoken information but may be less inclined to bring ideas across different parts of a discourse.

As from In Chapter One, (pp 13–14), it is explained how unfamiliar accents will change the sound of words through such things as stress, rhythm, or vowel shifts. These changes make it harder to listen and cause students to miss or mishear pieces of speech. To deal with this, they use strategies like inferencing to compensate for missing meaning. aside from that, on page 17, it is stated that unfamiliar accents increase the difficulty of listening and enhance the mental effort of the hearer. Students therefore avail themselves of top-down processes, including the use of background information or setting, when they cannot make out the sounds clearly. The low frequency of part-to-part inferencing (10%) shows that students focus on making sense of each part of the sentence more than connecting ideas over longer speech. These results support your thesis hypothesis that accent difference affects comprehension and the manner in which students choose listening strategies, and they show more need for exposure and training across multiple accents within the classroom.

Question twenty-one: Whenever you listen to something, do you use these Learning Strategies? (*You may tick more than once*)

F.Personal Elaboration
 G.World Elaboration
 H.Academic Elaboration
 I.Questioning Elaboration
 J.Creative Elaboration
 K.Imagery
 L.Summarization
 M.Translation
 N.Transfer
 O.Repetition
 P.Resourcing
 Q.Grouping
 R.Note Taking
 S.Deduction/Induction
 T.Substitution

Table 28 3.1.27

Learning Strategies During Listening (2)

Cognitive Listening Strategies:	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
Elaboration :		
F	17	18.89(%)
G	10	11.11(%)
H	15	16.67(%)
I	19	21.11(%)
J	8	8.89(%)
K	11	12.22(%)
L	2	2.22(%)
M	9	10(%)
N	13	14.44(%)

O	20	22.22(%)
P	5	5.55(%)
Q	9	10(%)
R	7	7.77(%)
S	3	3.33(%)
T	10	11.11(%)
F+K+P+Q	5	5.55(%)
G+M	6	6.67(%)
F+I+N	13	14.44(%)

Regarding elaboration strategies, “questioning elaboration” is applied most frequently (21%), in turn followed by “repetition” (22%), “personal elaboration” (19%), and “academic elaboration” (17%). Summarization and deduction/induction are two of the most infrequently used strategies, possibly reflecting difficulty or effort with the application of these higher-order mental operations. Combined elaboration strategies were utilized by some participants, but these are fewer in number, suggesting a bias toward specific elaboration types over multiple strategy use.

Question twenty-one: Whenever you listen to something, do you use these Learning Strategies? (*You may tick more than once*)

- A.Questioning for Clarification
- B.Cooperation
- C.Lowering Anxiety
- D.Self-Encouragement
- E.Taking Emotional Temperature

Table 29 3.1.28

Learning Strategies During Listening (3)

Socio-Affective Listening Strategies	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	16	51.11(%)
B	44	48.89(%)
C	20	22.22(%)
D	30	33.33(%)
E	18	20(%)
A+B	6	6.67(%)
D+C	10	11.11(%)

In socio-affective listening strategies, teamwork was the most commonly employed strategy (49%), followed by questioning for clarification as very prominent as well (51%). Self-Encouragement and minimizing anxiety were reported by 33% and 22% of learners, respectively, reflecting further the role of emotional and social support in effective listening. The evidence indicates that students recognize the benefit of communicating with others and managing affective aspects to enhance comprehension, though overall socio-affective strategies were used less frequently.

In conclusion, the results show a diverse use of listening strategies tilting towards those that combine cognitive, metacognitive, and affective aspects, which represents the complicity of successful listening comprehension.

Question twenty-two :Whenever you listen to sth, are you exposed to these types of comprehension exercises/Speech Varieties? (*You may tick more than once*)

A.Questions

B.Discrimination exercises (distinguish sounds/ideas)

C.Note-taking and summarizing

D.Casual conversation

E.Dictation

F.Press conference

G.Following instructions (tell students to do sth)

- H.University lecture
- I.Radio or Television News
- J.Live or Recorded Interviews on Television.
- K.Political speech
- L. Student Talkgroup
- M. Teacher Talk
- N. Guest Speakers
- O. TV
- P. Video/DVD
- Q. Radio
- R. Songs
- T. Text book
- U.Recordings
- V.Internet
- W.Role-play scenarios

Table 30 3.1.29

Types of Comprehension Exercises/Speech Varieties

Options	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	34	37.78(%)
B	12	13.33(%)
C	19	21.11(%)
D	10	11.11(%)
E	12	13.33(%)
F	3	3.33(%)
G	6	6.67(%)
H	19	21.11(%)
I	2	2.22(%)

J	4	4.44(%)
K	7	7.78(%)
L	20	22.22(%)
M	23	25.55(%)
N	11	12.22(%)
O	7	7.78(%)
P	4	4.44(%)
Q	00	00(%)
R	19	21.11(%)
T	25	27.78(%)
U	12	13.33(%)
V	17	18.89(%)
W	16	17.78(%)
A+M+ H+R	12	13.33(%)
A+C+H	12	13.33(%)
S+R	4	4.44(%)

Table 22 shows the variety of listening comprehension exercises and speech varieties used in classrooms to which students are being exposed. The majority of the students reported exposure to questions (37.78%) and teacher talk (25.55%), reflecting a strong stance on conventional, teacher oriented methods. Textbooks (27.78%) and student talkgroups (22.22%) also come in frequent use, reflecting a mixture of formal and interactive listening environments.

Students also reported exposure to note-taking and summarizing (21.11%), university lectures (21.11%), and

songs (21.11%), reflecting an academic and auditory blend of content. Notably, role-play situations (17.78%) and online material (18.89%) are also used, showing some communicative

and digital practice incorporation. Exposure to more natural forms such as live interviews (4.44%), TV (7.78%), and political speeches (7.78%) is minimal, reflecting sparse authentic listening practice in real life.

The use of blended input sources—such as "questions, teacher talk, university lectures, and songs" (13.33%)—represents a balance of format to meet varied learning needs. However, the majority of content-rich input sources such as press conferences (3.33%) and radio or news (2.22%) are not used adequately, potentially constraining learners' exposure to multiple registers and speech rates.

Question twenty-three: Does your teacher ask you to do/follow these instructions during all stages of listening? (*You may tick more than once*)

A.Purpose for the listening activity is established.

B.Activate your curiosity about the topic

C.Explain unknown vocabulary

Table 31 3.1.30

Instructions Followed Before Listening.

Before Listening	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	49	54.44(%)
B	41	45.55(%)
C	5	5.55(%)
A+B	5	5.55(%)

Table 3.1.30 results provide a close view of the support provided in the teaching of students at all three levels of listening: before, while, and after listening during building their understanding.

At the pre-listening stage, the most common practices are providing the purpose of the listening task (54.44%) and inciting learners' interest in the topic (45.55%). They are significant in making the students emotionally and cognitively prepared. However, explaining unknown words is not commonly practiced (5.55%), which could be a problem to students who lack the necessary linguistic knowledge, especially when the input contains hard or unknown words and expressions .

- A.Comparing the listening passage with the pre-listening stage.
- B.Filling in gaps
- C.Guessing the irrelevant information from the listening passage.
- D.Sequencing; where students are asked to give the right order of events in the story.
- E.Listening for specific information
- F.Put a context for the audio or visual material
- G.Provide clarification
- H.Engage you in questions

Table 32 3.1.31

Instructions Followed While Listening.

While Listening	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	16	17.78(%)
B	27	30(%)
C	4	4.44(%)
D	13	14.44(%)
E	47	52.22(%)
F	12	13.33(%)
G	6	6.67(%)
H	17	18.89(%)
A+D+E+L	13	14.44(%)
B+E+F	3	3.33(%)
E+H	2	2.22(%)

In this listening stage, the most common task is listening for particular information (52.22%), indicating careful, detailed attention. Other tasks like gap filling (30%) and questioning students (18.89%) also require attention and interest. However, important tasks like contextualizing audio inputs (13.33%) or sequencing events (14.44%) receive lower priority,

which may limit the development of global comprehension and higher-order inferencing skills. Despite expectations, irrelevant information guessing (4.44%) and clarification (6.67%) are underused although they have a significant role in the development of inferential and self-regulatory listening skill.

- A. Answering multiple-choice or true-false questions
- B. Summarizing the passage by referring to the notes taken.
- C. Students exchanging information which was gathered, and complete the whole text
- D. Combination of other skills

Table 33 3.1.32

Instructions Followed After Listening.

After listening	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	24	26.67(%)
B	37	41.11(%)
C	14	15.55(%)
D	19	21.11(%)
A+B	2	2.22(%)
A+B+C+D	1	1.11(%)

For the post-listening stage, summary of the passage in note form (41.11%), an upper-level cognitive process encouraging active processing and remembering, is the most frequently used instruction. The rest of the routine activities are tasks of combined skills like discussion or personal response (21.11%) and multi-choice or true-false questions (26.67%), inviting testing and subsequent interaction with the content. Interactive post-listening work like information exchange among students (15.55%) happens less frequently. Overall, while the data indicate a system and moderately supportive instructional approach throughout the listening stages, there are opportunities for vocabulary preparation, contextualization, and inferential processing to be created, and for facilitation of peer interaction and integrated skill development towards higher overall listening comprehension.

Data of practices in the classroom mentioned in Tables (3.1.29), (3.1.30) and (3.1.31) support several lines discussed in Chapter Two, in Section 9: Teaching Listening Comprehension. The use of purpose-setting and interest-building during pre-listening supports what is cited on (p.24): "Pre-listening helps students recall prior knowledge and prepare them emotionally and cognitively to receive the message." Low frequency in explaining vocabulary goes against the guideline in the same section, which states that: "Teachers are advised to pre-teach difficult words or provide support for unknown vocabulary before listening begins" (p. 24). This lack of support can cause comprehension breakdowns during the task.

At the while-listening stage, the high use of specific-information listening tasks like listening for specific information is task-based model-congruent, but the low use of inference and sequencing tasks represents a gap. As stated in Section 9 (p. 24): "While-listening would include asking for clarification, recognizing sequencing, or drawing conclusions based on evidence." These are not widely used, which means that the higher-order thinking skills are not being fully developed.

The post-listening stage, specifically note-based summarizing (41.11%), aligns with the guideline that: "Post-listening provides an opportunity for students to reflect and consolidate what has been heard, through activities such as summarizing or answering questions" (p. 24). Yet the limited peer interaction differs from the interactive teaching model suggested throughout Chapter Two, whereby listening has to be combined with discussion, exchange, and integration of competencies such that understanding is supported.

Question twenty-four: Does your teacher focus on these types of listening? (You may tick more than once)

- A. Discriminative Listening
- B. Critical Listening
- C. Sympathetic Listening
- D. Therapeutic Listening
- E. Selective Listening
- F. Comprehensive listening
- G. Informative Listening
- H. Relation Listening

I.Appreciative Listening

J.Extensive Listening

K.Intensive Listening

Table 34 3.1.33

Types of Listening Focused by the Teacher

Options	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	14	15.55(%)
B	21	23.33(%)
C	17	18.89(%)
D	11	12.22(%)
E.	14	15.55(%)
F	19	21.11(%)
G	21	23.33(%)
H	16	17.78(%)
I	18	20(%)
J	7	7.78(%)
K	20	22.22(%)
$A + B + D + E$	6	6.67(%)
$G + H + I$	8	8.88(%)
$I + J + K$	6	6.67(%)
$F + K$	11	12.22(%)

The data garnered from this question is representative of a range of listening types being given priority by educators in the classroom and the levels of prioritization across the various categories. Overall, the results suggest that while some types of listening are more widely being covered, others are proportionately undercovered.

Most emphasized are Critical Listening and Informative Listening, both receiving the highest single frequencies of 21 responses each (23.33%). This indicates that many teachers emphasize assisting students in acquiring skills to critically judge spoken information and fully comprehend speakers' intentions. These forms are seminal in academic and daily contexts where judging and interpreting information is crucial.

Comprehensive Listening (21.11%) and Intensive Listening (22.22%) also demonstrate high attention, which indicates close understanding instructional focus and systematic listening activities. Both practices are very flexible in academic contexts, especially in EFL contexts where students must receive lectures and rich input effectively.

In contrast, Appreciative Listening and Sympathetic Listening are present to some extent at 20% and 18.89% respectively, suggesting an intermediate focus on listening's affective dimension, facilitating emotional and aesthetic engagement. This may facilitate learner motivation and ease, but appears secondary to cognitive capabilities.

Discriminative and Selective Listening are also reported (15.55%), which suggests teachers to some degree help students learn to discriminate sounds and selectively listen to information. These skills may not be so taught consciously as the more comprehension-oriented types.

Therapeutic Listening ranks lowest in priority (12.22%), likely due to its more clinical and specialized focus, beyond the scope of the typical EFL classroom setting. Similarly, Extensive Listening, being highly useful for autonomy and fluency learning, ranks lowest in terms of discussion (7.78%), which might indicate less use of autonomous or pleasure-based listening beyond the formal classroom setting.

Combined option selections also reflect some duplication, the most highly selected combination being F+K (Comprehensive + Intensive Listening) at 12.22%, once more reflecting the focus on classroom-based academic comprehension. Others like G+H+I (Informative, Relation, Appreciative) and A+B+D+E (for broader types) are less highly selected, suggesting that combined instruction of a number of styles is not common. Overall, the findings suggest that classroom instruction is more analytically and comprehension-focused listening types and less affective, relational, or pleasure-focused listening. This is a sign of a traditional academic style, maybe because of curriculum goals and testing needs, but it also points to the need to balance cognitive and affective listening skills.

Question twenty-five: What roles does your teacher play while you are listening?(You may

tick more than once)

A.Tailor

B.StoryTeller

C.Engineer

D.Spy

E.Doctor

Table 35 3.1.34

Teachers Roles WhileListening

Options	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	19	21.11(%)
B	29	32.22(%)
C	31	34.44(%)
D	17	18.89(%)
E	21	23.33(%)
	6	6.67(%)
A+B		
	4	4.44(%)
A+C+D		
	2	2.22(%)
C+E		

Table 3.1.34, explores the varied roles teachers adopt during listening activities, as perceived by learners. The Engineer is the most recognized role, where 34.44% of learners point out that the teacher possesses the capability to use and control ICT tools effectively in class, for instance, fixing technical issues in order to save time. Following this, 32.22% of students see their teacher as being a Storyteller, the most significant and credible source of input and information in listening activities.

Around 23.33% of the students view their teacher as a Doctor, who identifies listening difficulties, suggests solutions to breakdowns, steps in when students make mistakes, and offers

constructive criticism. The Tailor role, whereby the teacher reshapes tasks and methods to students' levels of competence for improved performance, is also notable at 21.11%. Meanwhile, 18.89% of the students view their teacher as a Spy, who keeps student behavior and comprehension under close surveillance, using questioning to gauge language mastery without overt confrontation

Less frequently, teachers combine two or more roles, with 6.67% being a combination of Tailor and story teller and 4.44% being a combination of Tailor, Engineer, and Spy roles. No results were mentioned for the combination of Engineer and Doctor roles.

The theoretical framework of Chapter Two confirms this outcome, starting by Section 3 (pp. 5–6) where various listening types are explained and its applicability to the classroom is elaborated. The strong focus on Intensive and Comprehensive Listening corresponds to the focus placed in the chapter: "Intensive listening targets sound-level accuracy and is extensively employed in academic listening practice to improve learners' close understanding" (p. 5). "Comprehensive listening allows learners to get meaning from extended input, required in lectures, interviews, or presentations" (p. 5).

High frequency of Critical Listening is matched with the reason that this type of listening is essential for determining speaker purpose and message correctness, which is vital in exam and academic situations. As described: "Critical listening is needed in educational and professional settings where students need to judge, evaluate and verify what they hear" (p. 6).

Appreciative or Extensive Listening, on the other hand, is the reason for the gap described in the literature. According to the same section: "Appreciative listening, although useful for motivation and enjoyment of language, remains underutilized in formal EFL classrooms due to too rigorously strict curriculum targets" (p. 6).

Section Four: Impact of (Non)-Native Accents on Listening Comprehension

Table twenty-six: Are you more confident understanding in listening to?

- A. Native speakers
- B. Non-native speakers
- C. Both equally
- D. It depends on familiarity with the non-native accent
- E. It depends on familiarity with the native accent

Table 36 3.1.35

Confidence in Understanding Speakers

Options	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	:15	16.67(%)
B	.10	11.11(%)
C	37	41.11(%)
D	12	13.33(%)
E	16	17.78(%)

Table 3.1.35 displays the confidence levels of students in understanding different kinds of speakers during listening comprehension. The highest category, 41.11%, reported being equally confident to understand both non-native and native speakers. More students, 16.67%, were more confident with native speakers, and 11.11% were more confident with non-native speakers. Also, 17.78% of the students indicated that their confidence is based on familiarity with a native accent, and 13.33% indicated it is based on familiarity with a non-native accent. The above findings suggest that both native and non-native accent familiarity are important in listening confidence, and that a large number of students feel equally confident with both speaker types.

Question twenty-seven: How do you believe accent affects your listening comprehension?

A. It improves B. It decreases C. It remains the same

Table 37 3.1.36

Effect of Native Accent on Listening Comprehension

Native Accent	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	42	46.67(%)
B	08	08.89(%)
C	40	44.44(%)

A. It improves B. It decreases C. It remains the same

Table 38 3.1.37

Effect of Non-Native Accent on Listening Comprehension

Non-Native Accent	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	27	30(%)
B	39	43.33(%)
C	24	26.67(%)

Table 3.1.37 analyzes the impact of different accents on the comprehension of the students while listening. 46.67% of the respondents believe that their comprehension increases while listening to native accents, while 44.44% believe that there is no change. Only 8.89% of the respondents believe that native accents decrease their comprehension. In contrast, non-native accents shows another trend: 43.33% of the students chose that non-native accents reduce their listening comprehension, 30% say non-native accents improve their comprehension, and 26.67% say their comprehension remains unchanged. The findings reveal that native accents tend to assist or aid comprehension more often than non-native accents, which are likely to be problematic for most listeners.

These findings reflect the claims made in Chapter One, notably Section 1.3.2 (p. 14), which provides an account of how familiarity with accents can ease understanding. It also supports Section 1.5.1 (p. 20), which states that listeners perceive speech better when it is familiar in accent, regardless of whether the speaker is native. The fact that such a high percentage of students feel at ease with both varieties of speakers indicates that it is not a question of accent variety alone, and that familiarity is central to the degree to which students are able to understand spoken English. This supports the view in Section 1.6 (p. 22) that students should be exposed to a wide variety of accents in listening practice to promote both confidence and robustness.

Question twenty-eight: Do you think listening comprehension can be improved by exposure to a variety of?

A. Yes B. No C. Not sure

Table 39 3.1.38

Native Accents Exposure and Comprehension Improvement

Native accents	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
Yes	61	67,78(%)
No	6	6,67(%)
Not sure	23	25,55(%)

A. Yes B. No C. Not sure

Table 40 3.1.39

Non-Native Accents Exposure and ComprehensionImprovement.

Non-native accents	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
Yes	10	11,11(%)
No	49	54,44(%)
Not sure	31	34,44(%)

Table 3.1.39, reports students' opinions on whether exposure to different accents can improve their listening comprehension. A vast majority (67.78%) are of the opinion that exposure to different native accents improves their understanding, with only 6.67% disagreeing, and 25.55% being undecided. When it comes to non-native accents, however, the majority of the students (54.44%) are not of the opinion that exposure improves understanding, with only 11.11% agreeing, and 34.44% being undecided. This distinction would suggest that students see more benefits in native accent exposure for enhancing listening, whereas non-native accent exposure is ranked as being less beneficial or more difficult for improving understanding.

Question twenty-nine: In your opinion, is it important for English learners to practice listeningto?

A. Strongly agree B. Agree C. Neutral D. Disagree E. Strongly disagree

Table 41 3.1.40

Importance of Practicing Listening to Native accents

Native accents	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	46	51,11(%)
B	23	25,56(%)
	10	11,11(%)
C		
D	11	12,22(%)
E	00	00(%)

Question twenty-nine: In your opinion, is it important for English learners to practice listening to?

A. Strongly agree B. Agree C. Neutral D. Disagree E. Strongly disagree

Table 42 3.1.41

Importance of Practicing Listening to Non-Native accents

Non-native accents	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
a. Strongly agree	16	17,78(%)
b. Agree	17	18,89(%)
c. Neutral	30	33,33(%)
d. Disagree	24	26,67(%)
e. Strongly disagree	3	3,33(%)

The findings reveal a unanimous support among the participants for the importance of native versus non-native accents in English listening instruction. More than three-quarters of the participants agree (51.11%) or agree (25.56%) that exposure to native accents of English is important. Based on a common belief that native speaker models are preferable or more

authentic in language learning, possibly because they are associated with standard pronunciation and fluency. In contrast to this, responses towards non-native accents are highly negative and inconsistent. Only 17.78% and 18.89% strongly agree and agree, respectively, with the practice of non-native accents, whereas most of the participants remain neutral (33.33%) or even disagree (26.67%). This resistance and inconsistency manifest that non-native accents continue to be under-valued by most learners' views that are in turn directed by conventional teaching norms and social positions that advocate native speakerism. However, the relatively high neutral and disagree responses to non-native accents might be a sign of lack of familiarity with the real communicative reality in the world, where English is extensively used as a lingua franca by non-native speakers. Overlooking non-native varieties might limit learners' ability to understand a wider range of global English speakers.

This is also evident from Question 27, when nearly 47% said native accents make their listening comprehension better, while only 8.89% said they made it harder. Yet non-native accents were seen as difficult: 43.33% of students said that such accents restrict their comprehension, while only 30% said they add to it. Students also have a stark difference in their perception of exposure. As Table 3.1.39 of question 28, shows most of the students (67.78%) believe that exposure to different native accents helps them to get better, but 54.44% believe that exposure to non-native accents is not useful. These tendencies reflect the influence of "native speaker " in language teaching where native accents are desired and unawareness of the international distribution of English by non-native speakers. This mindset can limit students' ability to understand real English, often a wide range of foreign, non-native intonations. Overall, the research reveals a strong inclination towards appreciating native accents in acquisition and comprehension, despite under-appreciation and under-understanding of non-native forms

In summary , the evidence suggests a requirement for broadening exposure to diversity of English accents, not just for the sake of diversity, but also for functional listening competence. While native ones will naturally be prioritized, more systematic inclusion of non-native ones could serve the realities of worldwide communication and reduce listener bias.

Question thirty: Have you experienced difficulties understanding certain accents?

A. Yes B. No

Table 43 3.1.42

Difficulties Understanding Certain Accents

Options	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	35	38,89(%)
B	55	61,11(%)

The findings indicate that among the question of whether they find it hard to understand some accents, 38.89% of them answered yes, which can be assumed to mean they indeed have a hard time. Nevertheless, the majority of them, that is 61.11%, answered no, indicating that they do not have trouble listening to other accents. This indicates that although there are learners who find it difficult with some accents, the majority feel at ease in understanding different accents.

- If yes which accent

Table 44 3.1.43

Accents Found difficult Inunstanding By Participants

Options	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
British accent	21	23.33(%)
Australian accent	6	6.67(%)
Indian accent	3	3.33(%)
Scottishaccent	4	4.44(%)
Spanish accent	1	1.11(%)

Table 3.1.43 proves that a considerable percentage of students, 38.89%, reported experiencing difficulty with understanding some accents, while the majority (61.11%) did not. Among the latter, the British accent was the most frequent problem cited (23.33%), followed by Australian accent (6.67%), Scottish accent (4.44%), and Indian accent (3.33%). The Spanish accent was hard to understand for a smaller group (1.11%). These findings highlight that some native English accents, British and Australian being the most common among them, present comprehension problems for some learners, calling for certain exposure

and work with these varieties in listening practice.

By linking those finding to Question 6, it is noted that, American English was the most recognized and favored variety by far (73%), likely due to extensive exposure from media. Nevertheless, though British English ranked as the second most recognized, it still produced listening problems for several students, likely due to less frequent exposure or unfamiliar pronunciation features. The other native accents, Canadian and Australian, had even lower familiarity percentages (10% and 7.78%), reaffirming that the less exposure, the higher the comprehension problems, even when the accents are native. This pattern is also apparent in Question 7, where Arabic-accented English was the most exposed non-native accent (78.89%), which resulted in higher comfort and comprehension.

On the contrary, accents like French (17.78%), Hindi (4.44%), Spanish (5.55%), and Chinese (2.22%) were not so common in students' environment and hence were more difficult to process. As discussed in Chapter One (pp. 14, 20), familiarity and exposure are a key factor in developing listening comprehension; the more the students are exposed to an accent, the more they become familiar with its sound patterns, rhythm, and pronunciation. In summary, these results highlight that intelligibility difficulty is not an issue of the non-native or native accent, but one of the extent to which learners have been exposed to and are accustomed to it. This underscores the argument for diversified and balanced non-native and native accent exposure in classroom practices and instructional materials, to equip learners for the comprehension of English varieties in real life.

These responses are mentioned in Chapter One, and more particularly in Section 1.5.1 (p. 20), which talks about that unfamiliarity with an accent contributes to the cognitive load of the listener and may reduce comprehension. The high difficulty ranking for the British accent in findings validates this, as students may not be necessarily exposed to regional native accents in study materials at all times. In addition, Section 1.3.2 (p. 14), declares that familiarity rather than native status is the key to effective listening. Students will assume native accents are easier to listen to, but evidence indicates that unfamiliar native varieties (like British or Australian English) can be as difficult, if not more difficult, than non-native ones.

This also highlights the implication in Section 1.6 (p. 22) that listening instruction must include a variety of native and non-native accents if learners are to develop more general

listening ability. The presence of accent-based problems in the findings means that more deliberate exposure to a variety of varieties is necessary for greater understanding and reduced listener disorientation or anxiety.

Question thirty-one: Which linguistic features of non-native accents do you think hinder/blocklistening comprehension most?

- A.Many deleted sounds
- B.Assimilation
- C.Gemination
- D.Stress
- E.Rhythm
- F.Fast speech
- G.Mixture of word boundaries/limits
- H.Lots of weak forms
- I.Intonation
- J.Speech rate

Table 45 3.1.45

Linguistic Features Hindering Comprehension

Options	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	35	38.89(%)
B	12	13.33(%)
C	17	18.89(%)
D	10	11.11(%)
E	13	14.44
F	30	33.33(%)
G	7	7.78(%)
H	9	10(%)
I	5	5.55(%)

J	15	16.67(%)
A+B+ C	13	14.44(%)
D+E+F	6	6.67(%)
K+F	3	3.33(%)

Table 3.1.45,

shows the main linguistic features of non-native accents perceived by learners as leading to their listening comprehension problems. The most common reported problems, with 38.89% of the learners reporting this issue, is the phenomenon of many deleted sounds where vowels or consonants are left out of speech. Fast speech or quick rate is also a huge challenge, experienced by 33.33% of the learners. Other outstanding characteristics include gemination, with doubling of sounds at word boundaries (18.89%), and speech rate (16.67%). The less-well-documented but important ones are assimilation (13.33%), rhythm (14.44%), stress (11.11%), and weak forms (10%). Their combinations, e.g., many deleted sounds with assimilation and gemination (14.44%), also affect comprehensibility. These results suggest that pronunciation variation, especially reduction phenomena and quick speech, are important in determining learners' ability to understand non-native accents.

Question thirty-two: What strategies do you use to help improve your listening comprehension across different accents?

A.Watching movies/YouTube in English

B.Listening to podcasts/Tv shows

C.Talking with native/non-native speakers

D.Sound detection

E.Word identification

F.Separation of words in sentences

G.Using transcription with accented audio/video

H.Using subtitles with accented audio/video

I. Others

Table 46 3.1.46

Strategies Used To Improve Listening Comprehension Across Listening

Options	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
A	37	41.11(%)
B	26	28.89(%)
C	9	10(%)
D	3	3.33(%)
E	3	3.33(%)
F	3	3.33(%)
G	1	1.11(%)
H	8	8.89(%)
I	00	00(%)

Table 3.1.46; prove various strategies employed by the students to enhance their listening comprehension through various accents. The most frequently used strategy is listening to “English videos” or “YouTube videos”, which are used by 41.11% of the participants, followed by listening to “podcasts” or “TV shows” at 28.89%. Conversation with non-native or native speakers is less exploited, and only 10% have indicated this method. More universal language strategies such as;” sound recognition, word recognition, and separating wordsstrategy within sentences” are utilized by 3.33% of the students. “Subtitles with accented sound” or “video” are used by fewer students (8.89%), though “transcription” remains an atypical 1.11%. These findings confirm the preference for interactive, audiovisual material as core aids to advance listening skills on a variety of accents. These results aligns with Question 15, in which the most common approaches were repeated listening and viewing movies/TV shows (34.44%), followed by repetition (31.11%) and reading subtitles (28.89%). The fact that combined strategies—repetition and reading subtitles or movies—were found to exist points to learners going through a productive and responsive process of overcoming listening difficulties related to accent. Similarly, Question 18 indicated that students utilize a mixture of listening practice (36.67%), podcasts (23.33%), and speaker discussions (23.33%), and at times they use them together. In each of the three questions, the pattern is observed: students use several, authentic, and repeated exposure techniques in responding to non-native and native accents. Their

approach favors self-directed learning, audiovisual support, and genuine listening input in contrast to abstract or experimental strategies, reflecting an adaptive and participatory listening mode.

Question thirty-three: In listening tests, which type of accent do you find easier to understand?

A. Standard native English B. Non-native English C. Both

Table 47 3.1.47

Accents Easier in Listening Tests

Options	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
a. Standard native English	14	15.55(%)
b. Non-native English	16	17.78(%)
c. Both	60	66.67(%)

Table 3.1.37, is a study of perceptions of students about which accents are easier to understand in listening tests. The most responses (66.67%) stated that they find both “native and non-native English accents” easy to understand. Fewer (17.78%) respondents stated that “non-native English accents” are easier to understand, and 15.55% of the respondents stated that “standard native English accents” are easier to understand. These results suggest that the majority of students have gained enough exposure or strategies to manage both accents on listening tests (from first and second year). Besides it could be because the accents used by classroom tests are typically commonly known or neutral and therefore more accessible to learners regardless of whether or not learners are native speakers. This suggests a possibility of teachers using well-balanced or wide intelligibility accents on tests since they are second year learners.

Question thirty-four: Do you think exposure to a variety of unfamiliar accents reduces your listening comprehension anxiety?

A. Yes B. No C. Sometimes D. Not sure

Table 48 Table 3.48

The Effect of Accent Exposure on Listening Anxiety

Options	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
Yes	21	23.33(%)
No	16	17.78(%)
Sometimes	38	42.22(%)
Not sure	15	16.66(%)
Total		

Table 34 examines students' perceptions as to whether exposure to varied unfamiliar accents reduces listening comprehension anxiety. The results show that 42.22% of the participants sometimes find anxiety reduction through exposure, and 23.33% feel that it always reduces anxiety. Conversely, 17.78% of the participants do not believe exposure reduces their anxiety, and 16.66% are uncertain. These results suggest that while exposure to different accents it can alleviate listening anxiety to a certain degree for the majority of learners, its effect is not uniformly felt, revealing the complex relationship between accent familiarity and affective dimensions of listening understanding.

These findings are in line with earlier results in Table 16 that show nearly half of the students (45.55%) get anxious upon listening to unfamiliar accents. This confirms the Table 34 meaning that established a high percentage of students (42.22%) affirming that exposure to various accents reduces anxiety at times, and 23.33% agreeing that it always does. Cumulatively, these results record the affective impact of unfamiliarity in accent and show that while exposure is most likely to reduce anxiety for the majority of learners, this has no such effect in all situations. similarly, this idea is mentioned in Chapter One (p. 18), where it is stated that unfamiliarity in accent can create affective obstacles to listening comprehension and that increased exposure will iron out such reactions, but responses continue varied in terms of familiarity and experience.

Section Five: Suggestions and Recommendations

- Good luck for you both
- Perfect subject
- Very interesting topic
- I wish you all the best
- Try to listen non-native speakers to become more proficient
- Listen to music and watching movies
- Both of native and non-native accents can be improved in their right place
- I know you did your best in those 5 years so I'm sure you'll pass and succeed which you all the best
- Learn English good as you well
- I don't have specific point here
- It's really an interesting and important topic
- Watch more movies and reduce stress if you want to develop your spoken English language and follow serious tips and strategies in order to enhance the ancient and language
- Talk to native speakers and practice everyday
- I think reading improves listening comprehension more than listening
- Sorry I didn't answer some questions it was hard

Any further suggestions are welcome

Based on the results of the questionnaire, the following points were suggested:

- I suggest that teachers should increase students' exposure to both native and non-native English accents in listening sessions, so we become more comfortable and less anxious during exams or real-life conversations.
- I recommend listening to English podcasts , watching a lot of movies practicing English inside and outside the classroom.
- Personally, I think it would be helpful if teachers explain difficult accents before the listening task starts and guide us through understanding them step by step.
- It would be better if teachers focus equally on native and non-native speakers because in real life we communicate with both, not just native ones.

- I advise teachers to expose us more to accents such as Indian, French, or Arabic English, because we rarely hear them in class but face them outside university or online.
- Some students said that understanding different accents improves when we are trained with different listening strategies like top-down or metacognitive listening.
- One student said: “Teachers should play different accents often in class, and not just British or American.”
- Another participant shared: “Listening to many accents made me more confident during listening tests and helped me reduce anxiety.”
- A few learners mentioned that unfamiliar accents should be introduced gradually, especially at the beginning of the year.
- Some students recommend to apply more more language games focused on pronunciation and accent , as it makes learning more enjoyable and memorable.
- Finally, students appreciated the topic and many expressed their interest and encouragement, such as: “It is a good and important topic,” and “Thank you for choosing something we can relate to.”

Summary of Results and Findings from Students Questionnaire

The analysis of the third section of the questionnaire, which focused on listening comprehension and its relationship with native and non-native English accents, revealed a comprehensive overview of second-year students’ experiences, perceptions, and challenges. The results reflect various aspects, such as students’ self-assessment of their listening ability, the strategies they apply, their exposure to different English accents, and the perceived effect of such exposure on their comprehension performance.

To begin with, the majority of students rated their listening comprehension skills as either good or very good. Specifically, 70% of the participants believed they had a high level of comprehension when listening to English in general. This self-evaluation may reflect their regular contact with English in both academic and non-academic contexts, especially through

classroom activities and media exposure. However, the data showed that students' performance was significantly affected by the type of accent used. While native English accents, such as American and British, were more familiar and generally easier to understand, non-native accents were frequently perceived as more difficult. This aligns with the idea that familiarity plays a critical role in comprehension outcomes.

When asked about how they improve their listening comprehension skills, students indicated that their most common strategies included practicing listening exercises (36.67%), watching videos and movies (20%), and listening to English talks or podcasts (23.33%). These results highlight the importance of multimedia resources in language learning and suggest that students are actively seeking out real-world English in their learning routines. However, despite these efforts, many students still reported difficulties in understanding unfamiliar accents, particularly when they involved complex pronunciation or fast speech.

The analysis of the responses also revealed significant challenges students face while listening. Among these, the most frequently reported issues were unfamiliar pronunciation patterns, fast speech rates, deleted sounds, and unclear intonation. Notably, 43.33% of participants identified unfamiliar accents as the primary barrier to listening comprehension. Furthermore, when asked about specific problematic features, students pointed to phonological phenomena such as sound deletion and gemination, which often occur in fast or heavily accented speech, especially in non-native varieties.

To cope with these challenges, students reported using a combination of metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategies during listening tasks. The most used metacognitive strategies were advanced organization (28.89%) and auditory monitoring (26.67%), indicating that students try to prepare for and evaluate their listening process. In terms of cognitive strategies, they relied heavily on voice inferencing (27.78%) and extra-linguistic cues (25.55%),

which suggest that learners often depend on contextual understanding and general knowledge rather than solely on linguistic input. As for socio-affective strategies, cooperation (48.89%) and questioning for clarification (51.11%) were widely used, reflecting the importance of peer support and interaction in overcoming listening barriers.

In classroom settings, students indicated that they regularly engage in a variety of listening activities. These included answering comprehension questions (37.78%), listening to the teacher (25.55%), using audio materials from textbooks (27.78%), and participating in classroom discussions (22.22%). These practices were supported by structured listening instruction, especially through pre-, while-, and post-listening phases. Most students reported that pre-listening tasks helped them build interest and establish a purpose for listening, while while-listening tasks guided them to focus on specific information. Post-listening activities, such as summarizing and answering comprehension questions, were found useful for reflecting on content and consolidating understanding.

In terms of the type of listening the teachers focus on, the data showed a relatively balanced approach. Critical listening (23.33%), informative listening (23.33%), and intensive listening (22.22%) were the most frequently reported. Regarding the role of teachers, many participants viewed them as both ICT-users (engineers, 34.44%) and storytellers (32.22%), which indicates that teachers are perceived not only as instructional leaders but also as facilitators who use narrative techniques and technology to enhance engagement and understanding.

As for exposure to different English accents, a key finding was that native accents were more accessible and widely practiced in both academic and non-academic contexts. Around 67.78% of students stated that exposure to native English accents improved their comprehension skills. In contrast, exposure to non-native English accents was not perceived to

yield the same level of benefit, with 54.44% of students indicating that it did not significantly help their comprehension. This could be due to the limited availability of non-native accent materials in the classroom or insufficient training in understanding such varieties.

Despite these difficulties, a considerable number of students (76.67%) expressed agreement that practicing listening to native accents is important. However, only 36.67% expressed the same support for listening to non-native accents. This contrast suggests a strong bias in favor of native accents, possibly influenced by dominant media exposure and language ideologies that consider native speech as the ideal model. Interestingly, 41.11% of students felt equally confident listening to both native and non-native speakers, but 17.78% stated that their comprehension depended on how familiar they were with the specific accent.

When asked about which accents they found most difficult, British English was mentioned the most (23.33%), followed by Australian (6.67%), Scottish (4.44%), and Indian (3.33%). Spanish-accented English was found difficult by a smaller group (1.11%). These findings reveal that some varieties of native English are not necessarily easier to understand than others, and familiarity remains the decisive factor in ease of comprehension.

To improve their ability to understand different accents, students relied primarily on external resources such as videos, films (41.11%), and podcasts (28.89%). Fewer students used linguistic techniques like sound detection or word segmentation, which implies a gap in awareness of effective listening strategies. Also, more than half of the students reported that both native and non-native accents were equally clear in listening tests, which may reflect either growing adaptability or the standardization of test materials.

Lastly, regarding the impact of exposure on anxiety, students showed mixed responses. While 42.22% reported that exposure to unfamiliar accents sometimes reduced anxiety, only

23.33% believed it always did. This indicates that while familiarity through exposure can help reduce stress during listening tasks, it does not completely eliminate the challenge.

In conclusion, the findings clearly demonstrate that second-year English students at the University of 8 Mai 1945 - Guelma face significant difficulties with listening comprehension when exposed to non-native English accents. However, increased exposure, positive attitudes, and the application of effective strategies play a key role in overcoming these difficulties. The students' reliance on context, repetition, and multimedia resources reflects adaptive behavior, but also underscores the need for more structured training in processing diverse accents. Overall, the results support the hypothesis that accent familiarity and exposure significantly impact EFL learners' listening comprehension performance and confidence.

Conclusion:

To sum up, This chapter confirmed that both non-native and native English accents play a crucial role in affecting the listening comprehension of EFL learners, with native accents being overall simpler to understand by students due to familiarity. However, the increased presence of non-native English speakers across global communication requires greater exposure to different accents in language learning. The challenge posed by non-native accents can be reduced with particular listening strategies and favorable learner attitude. Therefore, to enhance listening comprehension skills, EFL teaching needs to adopt a more inclusive pedagogy which draws on various English accents. This will better prepare learners for the linguistic diversity they will be exposed to in real life outside the classroom and reduce stress related to foreign accents. Ultimately, working on more being open to accents is conducive to both linguistic competence and intercultural communication competence, supporting the overall goal of preparing students for international use of English.

Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this study lead to certain pedagogical implications. First, the results of students' questionnaire showed that most learners have positive attitudes towards the use of authentic audio materials. So, teachers can avoid the traditional methods and they should be creative in choosing a good way for students to enhance their listening comprehension. Second, depending on the questionnaire results, most learners struggle with unfamiliar English accents, particularly non-native ones. This implies that English instructors need to incorporate a wider variety of English accents into listening activities, rather than focusing solely on British or American English. Third, the study showed that students should be trained in effective listening strategies, including both bottom-up decoding (such as sound recognition and stress patterns) and top-down processing (such as context-based understanding). Instructors should also guide learners in developing metacognitive awareness, helping them evaluate and reflect on their comprehension progress. Finally, teachers must create a classroom environment that promotes tolerance and awareness of accent diversity. Listening instruction should be based not only on comprehension but also on fostering respect for cultural and phonological variation in English, thus supporting learners' development as global communicators

Limitations of the Study

When we were conducting the data, the data were collected only from second-year English students at 8 Mai 1945 University of Guelma, The sample was not that large, which limits the findings. However, our first plan was to conduct an experiment, time was the struggle from doing it. Due to the academic calendar specifically, the end of the final exams in February, followed by Ramadan, and the vacation in March we were left with only one month, which was not sufficient to carry out the experiment effectively. As a result, we relied solely on a questionnaire as our data collection tool. While this method captures self-reported perceptions, it does not reflect actual learner performance.

Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the results of this questionnaire, some points were suggested. Teachers are encouraged to use audio materials like podcasts with various English accents to help students get ready for listening in real life. Moreover, Learners should also watch movies and listen to music in different English accents to improve their listening. Therefore, researchers are advised to conduct studies using experimental methods to measure how exposure to various accents affects listening comprehension.

GENERAL CONCLUTION

GENERAL CONCLUSION

Although listening comprehension is a fundamental skill in acquiring any language, EFL students often struggle to understand spoken English due to the influence of different accents, especially non-native ones. These difficulties are mainly caused by phonological variations, differences in intonation, rhythm, speech rate, and the degree of accent familiarity. Hence, EFL teachers should consider Different accent exposure into their teaching practices to help students overcome such comprehension barriers. The present study was primarily conducted to investigate second-year students' perceptions and comprehension of native and non-native English accents. It also aimed to explore the extent to which accent familiarity, exposure, and speech characteristics affect the learners' ability to understand spoken English. The study focused on identifying the challenges that non-native accents may pose to EFL Learners and the impact these challenges have on listening comprehension performance.

The current research aims to demonstrate the relationship between (non) -native accents and listening comprehension, as well as how students' exposure and attitudes can enhance their listening proficiency. It was hypothesized that (non) - native English accents influence EFL students' listening comprehension and that increased exposure to various accents may improve understanding over time. To achieve the objectives of this study and to test the proposed hypothesis, the research was structured into three chapters: Chapter One focused on the main variable of this study-(non)-native accents. It provided an overview of language varieties, types of accents, and the linguistic features that distinguish native from non-native speech. The chapter also discussed the role of exposure and perception in how students interpret accented speech, particularly regarding bias, stereotypes, and language processing. Chapter Two explored the concept of listening comprehension in greater detail. It examined the definitions, stages, and types of listening, as well as relevant theories and the cognitive processes involved. Furthermore, the chapter addressed both obvious and subtle difficulties in second language listening-such as fast speech, weak forms, assimilation, and unfamiliar intonation-and highlighted the role that different accents play in complicating these factors. Chapter Three was devoted to the practical aspect of the study, which involved a questionnaire administered to 90 second-year LMD English students at the University of 8 Mai 1945 - Guelma.

The findings revealed that most students face challenges in understanding non-native accents, especially when they are unfamiliar or too different from the standard varieties commonly taught. However, the results also indicated that regular exposure to a range of English accents, along with appropriate teaching strategies, can help improve students' listening

comprehension. Additionally, most participants showed positive attitudes toward listening to different English accents, provided they are supported with contextual cues and proper guidance. Thus, the findings of this study confirm the significance of accent exposure in enhancing EFL learners' listening comprehension. It can be concluded that native and non-native accents do influence comprehension levels, and that students' attitudes, familiarity, and listening strategies play a role in this process. Therefore, both students and teachers should recognize the importance of integrating diverse English accents in classroom instruction.

People never listen without a purpose, except perhaps in a language class (Gary Buck)

Listen a hundred times, ponder a thousand times, speak once” (Turkish proverb)

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Appendix A

Students' Questionnaire *Effect of (Non)-Native Accents on Listening Comprehension*

Dear students,

You are kindly invited to answer the following questionnaire, which is part of a master's dissertation research. The aim is to investigate the *Effect of (Non)-Native Accents on Listening Comprehension* among EFL students. Your responses will be treated confidentially and used for academic purposes only.

Please put a tick (✓) in the box corresponding to your choice.

Thank you for your collaboration!

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Candidates:

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Supervisor: M.W.CHETTIBI

Section One: General Information

1. Specify your gender:

a. Male	b. Female

2. What is your age:

a. 18–20	b. 21–23	c. 24–26	d. Over 26

3. What is your native language?

a. Arabic	b. Berber	c. French	d. Other (please specify):

4. How long have you been studying English?

a. Less than 9 years	b. 9 years	c. More than 9 years

Section Two: (Non)-Native Accents

5. How often do you listen to English spoken by

	a. Daily	b. Weekly	c. Monthly	d. Rarely	e. Never
Native speakers					
Non-native speakers					

(**Native** means that language is his/her first; **Non-native** means that the language is his/her second or third)

6. Which native English accents are you most familiar with outside classes?(*You may tick more than once*)

a. American	b. British	c. Australian	d. Canadian	Other (please specify):

7. Which non-native English accents have you been most exposed to outside classes?
(*You may tick more than once*)

a. Arabic- accent	b. Chinese- accent	c. Hindi- accent	d. French- accent	e. Spanish- accent	Other (please specify)

8. On what basis do you decide the accent is non-native? (*You may tick more than once*)

a. Strange/chan ged Vowels	b. Strange/chan ged Consonants	b. Strange Stress Placeme nt	c. Strang e Rhyth m	d. Strange Intonati on	e. Simple/ StrangeSylla bic Structures	f. Speech Rate (spee d)

9. Which type of accent do you find easier to understand? (*You may tick more than once*)

a. Native English accents (American, British, etc.)	b. Non- native English accents	c. Both are equally understandable	d. It depends on the speaker	e. other

10. How often are you exposed to non-native English accents in class other than your teacher's?

A. Frequently	B. Occasionally	C.always	D. Rarely	E. Never	F. Never

11. How often are you exposed to non-native English accents on social media/Internet/Tv?

a. Frequently	b. Occasionally	always	c. Rarely	d. Never	e. Never

12. Does your teachers intentionally expose you to non-native English accents other than his/her accent?

a. Yes	b. No

If yes, in which course?

A. Oral Expression	B. Phonetics	D. Literature	D. Linguistics	E. Other (please specify)

If yes, which non-native accents does your teacher primarily use in listening materials? (*You can tick more than one*)

A. Arabic- accent	B. Chinese- accent	C. Hindi- accent	D. French- accent	E. Spanish- accent	F. Mixed	G. Other (please specify)

13. Does your teachers intentionally expose you to native English accents?

A. Yes	B. No

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If yes, in which course?

A. Oral Expression	B. Phonetics	C. Literature	D. Linguistics	E. Other (please specify):

If yes, which native accents does your teacher primarily use in listening materials? (*You can tick more than one*)

A. American	B. British	C. Other English Accents	D. Mixed

14. Whenever you listen to non-native English speakers, do you? (*You may tick more than once*)

A. think they are less intelligent	B. think they are from lower class/social status	C. get annoyed	D. feel impatient	E. feel frustrated	F. feel anxious	G. Other (please specify)

15. What strategies do you use to overcome accent difficulties? (*You may tick more than once*)

A. Listening more frequently	B. Watching movies & series	C. Using subtitles	D. Asking for repetition	E. Other (please specify):

16. Do you feel anxious when listening to unfamiliar accents?

A. Yes	B. No	C. Sometimes

Section Three: Listening Comprehension

17. How do you rate your listening comprehension ability of English in general?

A. Very good	B. Good	C. Moderate	D. Poor	E. Very Poor

18. How do you usually improve your listening comprehension? (*You may tick more than once*)

A. Watching movies/TV in English	
B. Listening to podcasts	
C. Talking with native/non-native speakers	
D. Practicing with listening exercises	
E. Others (please specify)	

19. Whenever you listen to sth, do you use: (*You may tick more than once*)

A. Bottom up Process	Decode each linguistic element separately (sounds, phrases, words and clauses). Then, you combine them to get the intended meaning.	
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B. Top Down Process	Understanding the whole in order to understand the details	
C. Interactive Process	Using both bottom up & top down approaches	
D. Cognitive Process	Meaning is made by you based on knowledge of the language by concluding about speakers' intention, etc	
E. Metacognitive Process	Determine the real communicative purpose of a given conversation	

20. What are the problems/ difficulties you face while listening to sth: (*You may tick more than once*)

A. Unfamiliar accent		I. Humour (fun, sarcasm, irony, etc)	
B. Lack of contextual information		J. Cannot ask for clarification or repetition	
C. Lack of facial expressions, hand and body gestures		K. You are badly arranged far from the source of voice	
D. Lots of information (cognitive load)		L. Low volume	
E. Your low language proficiency		M. Length of listening	
F. Unfamiliar vocabulary		N. Speed of listening	
G. Bad quality of the recorded materials		O. Noisy/overcrowded classroom	
H. Cultural differences/values (idioms, proverbs)		P. Lack of concentration and attention.	

21. Whenever you listen to something, do you use these Learning Strategies? (*You may tick more than once*)

Meta-cognitive Listening Strategies	A. Advanced Organization	Decide the objectives of listening task	
	B. Directed Attention	Pay attention to the main points.	
	C. Selective Attention	Listen a second time	
	D. Self-Management	Manage your own motivation.	
	E. Monitoring	Checking yourself	
	F. Comprehension Monitoring	Checking your understanding	
	G. Auditory Monitoring	Make decisions whether something sounds “right” or not.	
	K. Double-Check Monitoring	Checking your monitoring.	
	L. Evaluation	Focus on the learner	
	M. Performance Evaluation	Judge how well they perform	
	N. Problem Identification	Decide what problems still exist.	

Cognitive Listening Strategies	Inferencing	A. Linguistic Inferencing.	Guessing unknown words by linking them to known words.	
		B. Voice Inferencing	Guessing by the tone of voice	
		C. Paralinguistic or Kinesic Inferencing	Guessing the meaning of unknown words by referring to paralinguistic clues (facial expressions and gestures).	
		D. Extra-Linguistic Inferencing	Guessing based on other clues, such as what is required in the task.	

		E. Inferencing between Parts	Making use of certain words in the text that may not be related to the task to get more information about the task.	
	Elaboration	F. Personal Elaboration	Use prior/previous knowledge to comprehend task	
		G. World Elaboration	Use your world knowledge to comprehend task.	
		H. Academic Elaboration	Use knowledge gained during your formal learning.	
		I. Questioning Elaboration	Question yourselves about what you do know, and not know.	
		J. Creative Elaboration	To adapt what you hear to make the story more interesting	
		K. Imagery	Use mental imagery to create a picture of what is happening.	
		L. Summarization	Make a mental or written summary.	
		M. Translation	Translate from first language what you hear in second language.	
		N. Transfer	Use knowledge about your first language	
		O. Repetition	Learners repeat words	
		P. Resourcing	Use any resources (e.g., dictionaries, diagrams, notes, peers).	
		Q. Grouping	Group words together based on common attributes.	
		R. Note Taking	Write notes as you listen.	
		S. Deduction/Induction	Apply rules to follow a text	
		T. Substitution	Substitute/replace words to fill in gaps in your listening.	

Socio-Affective Listening Strategies	A. Questioning for Clarification	Find out more by asking questions	
	B. Cooperation	Work together to construct your comprehension	
	C. Lowering Anxiety	Relax before listening.	
	D. Self-Encouragement	Develop a positive attitude and believe it is possible to understand what you hear.	
	E. Taking Emotional Temperature	Realize that sometimes you will not feel happy about listening.	

22. Whenever you listen to sth, are you exposed to these types of comprehension exercises/Speech Varieties? (*You may tick more than once*)

- | | |
|--|------------------------|
| A. Questions | L. Student Talkgroup |
| B. Discrimination exercises (distinguish sounds/ideas) | M. Teacher Talk |
| C. Note-taking and summarizing | N. Guest Speakers |
| D. Casual conversation | O. TV |
| E. Dictation | P. Video/DVD |
| F. Press conference | Q. Radio |
| G. Following instructions (tell students to do sth) | R. Songs |
| H. University lecture | S. Text book |
| I. Radio or Television News | U. Recordings |
| J. Live or Recorded Interviews on Television. | V. Internet |
| K. Political speech | W. Role-play scenarios |

23. Does your teacher ask you to do/follow these instructions during all stages of listening? (*You may tick more than once*)

Before
Listening

A. Purpose for the listening activity is established.

B. Activate your curiosity about the topic

C. Explain unknown vocabulary

A. Comparing the listening passage with the pre-listening stage.

B. Filling in gaps (completing the missing utterances).

C. Guessing the irrelevant information from the listening passage.

While
Listening

D. Sequencing; where students are asked to give the right order of events in the story.

E. Listening for specific information (information search).

F. Put a context for the audio or visual material

G. Provide clarification

H. Engage you in questions

A. Answering multiple-choice or true-false questions

B. Summarizing the passage by referring to the notes taken.

After
Listening

C. Students exchanging information which was gathered, and complete the whole text

D. Combination of other skills (discussions, role-plays and personal reports writing letters or essays as a follow-up to listening text)

24. Does your teacher focus on these types of listening? (*You may tick more than once*)

- A. **Discriminative Listening** (to learn how to differentiate between sounds&distinguish the various meaning of a givenutterance)
- B. **CriticalListening**(making judgments about others' speech as good or bad, worthy or unworthy & analyze and examine them toprovide criticism and comments)
- C. **SympatheticListening**(show care and concern through paying our attention andexpressing our feelings)
- D. **TherapeuticListening**(when a person sees a therapist, or in a social situation orwhen he seeks to diagnose and help the speaker to be cured).
- E. **SelectiveListening**(It refers to listening to something, ignoring others, and hearing with more attention whatyou want to hear).
- F. **Comprehensivelistening**(understanding the message of a speaker, as when weattend a classroom lecture not a simple chat)
- G. **Informative** Listening (to achieve a full understanding of the speaker'sintention; i.e. when the listeners accurately interpret the received message, they may constructthe exact intended meaning, understand and retain information
- H. **Relation**Listening(aims at building relationships with people in which, the listeners tendto understand others' needs and feelings).
- I. **Appreciative**Listening(People listen for different purposes .They consider listening to music, jokes, orironic speech as a source of relaxation and entertainment.
- J. **Extensive** Listening (to encourage students to choose for themselves their own materials and practice listening for pleasure and language improvement)
- K. **Intensive** Listening (can be divided into two types:- Activities to train a detailed comprehension of meaning.- Activities which get the learner to listen to particular features of language)

25. What roles does your teacher play while you are listening?(*You may tick more than once*)

- | |
|---|
| A. Tailor (always tries to look forlistening tasks & strategies that fit yourlevel to perform better). |
| B. StoryTeller (considered as the best source of input/information). |

C. Engineer (be familiar about the use of ICTs in the classroom, the way they work and fixing the damaged materials to save time).
D. Spy (studies your behavior through unspoken observations that can be analyzed later & works hard to discover to what extent you mastered the language by asking questions).
E. Doctor (diagnosing your listening difficulties, providing cure to overcome your misunderstanding of what is heard and intervening to get you out of trouble & provide feedback)

Section Four:

Impact of (Non)-Native Accents on Listening Comprehension

26. Are you more confident understanding in listening to?

A. Native speakers	B. Non-native speakers	C. Both equally	D. It depends on familiarity with the non-native accent	E. It depends on familiarity with the native accent

27. How do you believe accent affects your listening comprehension?

Native Accent			Non-Native Accent		
A. It improves	B. It decreases	C. It remains the same	A. It improves	B. It decreases	C. It remains the same

28. Do you think listening comprehension can be improved by exposure to a variety of?

	A. Yes	B. No	C. Not sure
Native accents			
Non-native accents			

29. In your opinion, is it important for English learners to practice listening to?

	A. Strongly agree	B. Agree	C. Neutral	D. Disagree	E. Strongly disagree
Native accents					
Non-native accents					

30. Have you experienced difficulties understanding certain accents?

A. Yes	B. No	If yes, which accents?

31. Which linguistic features of non-native accents do you think hinder/block listening comprehension most? (*You can tick more than one*)

A. Many deleted sounds (disappearance of a vowel/consonant)		F. Fast speech (speed of delivery)	
B. Assimilation (change of a consonants because of another)		G. Mixture of word boundaries/limits (juncture)	

C. Gemination (when a word ends with a sound & the next word starts with the same)		H. Lots of weak forms	
D. Stress		I. Intonation	
E. Rhythm		J. Speech rate (speed of speech)	

32. What strategies do you use to help improve your listening comprehension across different accents?

- A. Watching movies/YouTube in English
- B. Listening to podcasts/Tv shows
- C. Talking with native/non-native speakers
- D. Sound detection
- E. Word identification
- F. Separation of words in sentences
- G. Using transcription with accented audio/video
- H. Using subtitles with accented audio/video
- I. Others (please specify)

33. In listening tests, which type of accent do you find easier to understand?

A. Standard native English	B. Non-native English	C. Both

34. Do you think exposure to a variety of unfamiliar accents reduces your listening comprehension anxiety?

A. Yes B. No C. Sometimes D. Not sure

35 Suggestions and Recommendations

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Thank you for your cooperation!

Résumé

La compréhension orale est l'une des compétences les plus difficiles à maîtriser pour les étudiants en anglais langue étrangère (EFL), notamment lorsqu'ils sont confrontés à des accents anglais variés.

Cette recherche examine l'effet des accents natifs et non natifs sur la compréhension orale des étudiants de deuxième année au département d'anglais à l'université du 8 Mai

1945 - Guelma. Elle vise à explorer les attitudes des étudiants envers ces accents et à analyser dans quelle mesure l'exposition fréquente à des accents différents influence leur capacité à comprendre l'anglais parlé.

L'étude repose sur l'hypothèse selon laquelle les accents non natifs présentent initialement plus de difficulté, mais que l'exposition progressive améliore la compréhension. Une méthode descriptive et quantitative a été adoptée, fondée sur un questionnaire distribué à 150 étudiants, dont seulement 90 ont répondu. Les résultats confirment que l'exposition régulière aux accents non familiers réduit les difficultés de compréhension. De plus, les participants ont exprimé une attitude globalement positive envers la diversité des accents, soulignant l'importance d'inclure cette diversité dans l'enseignement de la compréhension orale.

Mots-clés: Accents natifs, Accents non natifs, Compréhension orale, Étudiants EFL, Attitude

الملخص

تعد مهارة الفهم السمعي من أصعب المهارات التي يواجهها طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية، خاصة عند الاستماع إلى لهجات إنجليزية متنوعة . تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى تحليل تأثير اللهجات الأصلية وغير الأصلية على الفهم السمعي لدى طلبة السنة الثانية بقسم اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة 8 ماي 1945-قالمة، بالإضافة إلى استكشاف مواقفهم تجاه هذه اللهجات. تفترض الدراسة أن اللهجات غير الأصلية تشكل صعوبة أكبر في البداية ، إلا ان التعرض المتكرر لها قد يحسن من أداء الطلاب في الفهم السمعي ويسهم في تطوير مواقف إيجابية تجاهها. اعتمدت الدراسة على منهج وصفي كمي. حيث تم توزيع استبيان على 150 طالبا ،أجاب منهم 90 فقط. وقد أظهرت النتائج أن التعرض المنتظم للهجات المختلفة يساهم في تقليل الصعوبات وتحسين الفهم. كما عبر أغلب الطلبة عن مواقف إيجابية تجاه تنوع اللهجات ،مما يؤكد على ضرورة إدراج هذا التنوع في مناهج تعليم الاستماع.

الكلمات المفتاحية: اللهجات الأصلية، اللهجات غير الأصلية، فهم الاستماع، طلبة الانجليزية، المواقف.