DEDICATION

To my beloved grandfather,

Major General Amorn Kusinkird,

and my parents

for their love and support,

for teaching me the value of listening

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Listening plays a significant role in the lives of people. Of the four major areas of communication skills and language development--listening, speaking, reading, and writing--the one that is the most basic is listening. It is evident that children listen and respond to language before they learn to talk. When it is time for children to learn to read, they still have to listen so that they gain knowledge and information to follow directions. In the classroom, students have to listen carefully and attentively to lectures and class discussions in order to understand and to retain the information for later recall.

Listening is not only the first of the language arts skills developed, it is also the skill most frequently used in both the classroom and daily life. Rankin (1926/1952) suggests that adults spend more than 40 percent of their communication time listening, in contrast with 31.9 percent speaking, 15 percent reading, and 11 percent writing. Clearly, much of the educational process is based on skills in listening. Students have to spend most of the time listening to what the teacher says, for instance, giving lectures, asking questions, or telling directions. According to Wolvin and Coakley (1979), the amount of time that students are expected to listen in the classroom ranges from 42 to 57.5 percent of their communication time. Taylor (1964), on the other hand, estimates that nearly 90 percent of the class time in high school and university is spent in listening to discussion and lectures. Since listening occupies such a large percentage of the communication time of most people, it is therefore advantageous to possess effective listening skills in order to meet listening demands that occur daily.

In a language classroom, listening ability plays a significant role in the development of other language arts skills. When students first learn a language, they

generally have to listen to the words several times before they are able to recognize and pronounce those words. Listening can also help students build vocabulary, develop language proficiency, and improve language usage (Barker, 1971). Cayer, Green, and Baker (1971) find that students' ability to comprehend written material through reading as well as to express themselves through speaking and written communication are directly related to students' maturity in the listening phase of language development. Dunkel (1986) also asserts that developing proficiency in listening comprehension is the key to achieving proficiency in speaking. Not only are listening skills the basis for the development of all other skills, they are also the main channel through which students make initial contact with the target language and its culture (Curtain & Pesola, 1988).

Despite the importance of listening practice in language instruction, English-language classes in many countries still emphasize only the skills of reading and writing. This is especially the case of an English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) situation in which the English language is taught as a subject at school and used only inside, but not outside, the classroom. EFL students are studying English in their home countries where English is not the dominant native language. Students who are from environments where English is not the language of the country have very few opportunities to hear the real language; these students therefore are not accustomed to hearing the language as it is produced by native speakers for native speakers. Consequently, students from the countries in which English is taught as a foreign language frequently have great difficulty understanding English spoken to them when they come into contact with native speakers of the language.

In the case of an English-as-a-second-language (ESL) situation, students in the classroom are those whose native languages are any language other than English. ESL students are studying English in an English-speaking country. In this environment, students are surrounded by the target language both in the community and in the school; listening comprehension is therefore important for everyday survival (Carrier, 1999; Richard-Amato, 1996). Since students reside in the country where the target language is used, they will have more opportunities to experience English language both inside and outside the classroom. In addition, there are plenty of authentic materials that ESL

students will encounter each day. Authentic materials refer to oral and written language materials used in daily situations by native speakers of the language (Rogers & Medley, 1988). Some examples of authentic materials are newspapers, magazines, and television advertisements. In addition, it is necessary for students who are going to study in an English-speaking environment to learn how to listen to lectures and take notes, to comprehend native speakers in various kinds of speech situations, as well as to understand radio and television broadcasts (Paulston & Bruder, 1976).

Outside the classroom, many ESL students have problems in comprehending speech spoken by English native speakers at the normal rate. Moreover, some students often panic when they hear the English language on television, radio, or in situations in which speech is fast and nothing is repeated. One way to prepare ESL students for encounters with real language is to apply real language or authentic speech in the ESL classroom (Bacon, 1989; Rivers, 1980; Rogers & Medley, 1988; Secules, Herron, & Tomasello, 1992). An advantage of introducing authentic materials at an early stage of language learning is to help students become familiar with the target language (Field, 1998). The use of authentic materials in ESL teaching and learning appears to be worthwhile (Porter & Roberts, 1981; Rings, 1986; Rivers, 1987). Implementing authentic speech in classroom listening allows students to have "immediate and direct contact with input data which reflect genuine communication in the target language" (Breen, 1985, p. 63). Conversely, however, the use of teacher talk and/or foreigner talk with ESL students can impede students' ability in listening comprehension because of the unusual rate of speech (Robinett, 1978; Snow & Perkins, 1979).

The fundamental objective of the present study was to examine the influences of the use of aural authentic materials on listening ability in students of English as a second language. This descriptive study examined how the use of authentic input in an ESL classroom eased and/or impeded students' learning in English-language listening. In conjunction with the primary objective, the study also identified the learning strategies ESL students used when they experienced authentic listening materials. Finally, the study determined the influences of using authentic materials on ESL students' attitudes towards learning English.

Research Questions

The primary research question asked in the present study is the following:

    What are the influences of aural authentic materials on

    the listening comprehension in students of English

    as a second language?

The secondary research questions addressed in the study are as follows:

1.   What kinds of learning strategies are most frequently used by

    ESL students listening to aural authentic materials in the

    classroom?

2.   What are the influences of aural authentic materials on ESL

    students' attitudes towards learning English?

What Is Known About Listening

The word "listening" may have different meanings for different people. For the purpose of the current study, however, listening is defined as an active, and interactional, process in which a listener receives speech sounds and tries to attach meaning to the spoken words in an attempt to understand the intended message of a speaker or the oral text so that he/she can respond effectively to oral communication.

Traditionally, many teachers have believed that listening is a natural skill that is developed by children on their own and that does not require teaching. At all educational levels, listening has been the forgotten language skill for generations. In spite of its importance, the listening skill has received little attention in language teaching and learning. Not only has listening been neglected as an area of instruction in schools, listening has also been unattended as an area of research. According to Cayer, Green, and Baker (1971), it was not until the year 1971 that the first research in listening did appear. One reason for the neglect of listening comprehension as a research area might be the

lack of instruments to measure and evaluate listening, causing difficulties in concretely measuring and evaluating the skills in listening.

The goal of second-language and/or foreign-language instruction, according to comprehension-approach methodologists, is the development of communicative competence and oral fluency. Dunkel (1986) suggests that this goal can be achieved by "putting the horse (listening comprehension) before the cart (oral production)" (p. 100). In other words, proficiency in speaking is related to developing proficiency in listening comprehension. Byrnes (1984) also proposes that listening comprehension precedes production in all cases of language learning. Moreover, Byrnes asserts that there can be no production unless linguistic input is provided and becomes comprehensible intake for the listener.

The communicative and proficiency-oriented approaches to language teaching have placed increasing importance on listening comprehension. In addition to the necessity to emphasize listening comprehension in language instruction, research in second language acquisition (Curtain, 1991; Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982) even suggests the need for language experiences that provide many opportunities for listening comprehension particularly at the early stages of language learning.

<u>What Is Known About Authentic Materials</u>

For the purpose of the present study, the term "authentic materials" is defined as language samples that are created by native speakers for native speakers of the language. Many researchers have studied the impact of using authentic speech in foreign-language as well as second-language classrooms. Results of the study conducted by Herron and Seay (1991) indicate that listening comprehension in language students improves with increased exposure to authentic speech. Ur (1984) proposes that second-language students learn best from listening to speech that is planned to take into account the learners' level of ability. Ur also suggests that the speech should be an approximation to the real language if it is not entirely authentic.

While tasks such as grammar or pronunciation drills do not provide students with the chance for exchanging authentic messages, the use of video and film, radio broadcasts, and television programs will involve students in activities that present real-life listening contexts (Herron & Seay, 1991). Different aural texts such as songs, news, and weather reports may also be used as authentic listening materials in the ESL classroom.

If students are to use the language to communicate effectively in the real world, Rogers and Medley (1988) propose that students have to experience the language as it is used for real communication among native speakers. This can be done through the use of aural authentic materials in the language classroom. Furthermore, Gilman and Moody (1984) recommend that the teacher should use authentic materials in implementing listening comprehension training at advanced level and with students at the beginning and intermediate levels.

Definition of Terms

For this study, the following terms are defined:

Aural language refers to language that has been spoken, as compared to written language.

Authentic language refers to written or spoken language which is created by and for a native speaker of the language in which it is produced (Rogers & Medley, 1988).

Authentic materials refer to audio/video recordings of a discourse or a conversation that is spontaneously generated by native speakers of the language.

Authentic speech / Authentic text refers to a piece of spoken language which is created by a native speaker of the language in which it is produced.

Caretaker speech refers to the speech used by mothers, fathers, or babysitters when they talk to children who are learning to talk. Caretaker speech is easy for children to understand because of its use of simple grammar, easy words, short utterances, clear pronunciation, and abundant repetition (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992).

Comprehensible input refers to input language which contains linguistic items that are slightly beyond the learner's present linguistic competence.

Context refers to what occurs before and/or after a word, a phrase, or a text. The context often helps in understanding the particular meaning of the word, phrase, and so on.

English as a foreign language (EFL) refers to the role of English in countries where it is taught as a subject in schools but not used as a medium of instruction in education nor as a language of communication in the country (e.g., in government, or business).

English as a second language (ESL) refers to the role of English for immigrant and other minority groups in English-speaking countries. These people may use their mother tongue at home or among friends, but use English at school and at work.

First language (L1) refers to a learner's mother tongue. This term is used synonymously with native language.

Foreigner talk refers to the type of speech used by native speakers of a language when speaking to foreigners who are not proficient in the language. The characteristics of foreigner talk are similar to those of caretaker speech or mother talk; for instance, vocabulary and grammar used are simple; speech is slow; pronunciation and intonation patterns are sometimes exaggerated (Richards et al., 1992).

Input refers to language data to which a learner is exposed either orally or visually.

Input hypothesis refers to Krashen's hypothesis which states that for language acquisition to occur in second or foreign-language learning, it is necessary for the learner to understand input language which contains linguistic items that are slightly beyond the learners' present linguistic competence.

Intake refers to an intermediate process between the exposure to input and actual language acquisition (Leow, 1993).

Learning strategy refers to intentional behavior and thought that learners use during learning in order to help them understand, learn, or remember new information.

Listening refers to a process in which a listener perceives aural stimuli and attempts to interpret the message of a speaker or oral text.

Listening comprehension refers to the ability to extract information from auditorially presented language material.

Native language refers to the language which a learner acquired in early childhood.

Natural approach refers to an approach proposed by Terrell. It emphasizes natural communication rather than formal grammar study.

Negotiation of meaning refers to the attempt made in conversation to clarify a lack of understanding.

Second language (L2) refers to the language that is learned or acquired through training. In the present study, the second language is the English language.

Suggestopedia refers to a teaching method developed by Lazanov. It makes use of music, visual images, and relaxation exercises to make learning more comfortable and effective.

Target language refers to the language being learned. In this study, the target language is the English language.

Teacher talk refers to variety of language sometimes used by teachers in the process of teaching. Teachers often simplify their speech, giving it many of the characteristics of foreigner talk

Total Physical Response (TPR) refers to a language teaching method developed by Asher. Orders, commands, and instructions are presented requiring a physical response from the learner.

<u>Assumptions</u>

There were two assumptions made in this study. One assumption was that the physical presence of the researcher did not interfere with the teaching and learning processes to the degree that the results were invalidated. The other assumption was that

what learners and instructor told the researcher during the interviews was an accurate reflection of their memory and thinking.

Delimitations

For the purposes of the present study, the following delimitations were set:

1. The students being studied were limited to students actually living in the United States, where the target language, English, is being spoken by a majority of the inhabitants.

2. All the students in the present study were currently enrolled in an intensive English-language training program at a university.

Limitations

There were two limitations considered in the current research study.

1. Due to the limited access to the participants, analysis was based primarily upon the participants' self-report assessment.

2. Due to the small number of participants in the study and their particular learning situation, generalizability is limited.

Organization of the Dissertation

The study consists of five chapters. This Chapter One presents the introduction, research questions, and purpose of the study.

Chapter Two examines research on listening comprehension, listening and ESL learning, and the use of aural authentic materials.

Chapter Three describes the methods and procedures used in conducting the research. A description of the student selection, data collection, and data analysis are included.

Chapter Four reports the findings and results of the data collection. Detailed description of the results obtained from this study is presented.

Chapter Five summarizes the results of the study. Recommendations for future research and implications for teaching are discussed.

A complete list of references and appendices follows Chapter Five.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature relevant to the present study is presented in this chapter in three major categories: listening comprehension, listening and English-as-a-second-language learning, and the use of aural authentic materials.

Listening Comprehension

Definitions of Listening

Definitions of listening, ranging from the simple to the expansive, have been proposed by various scholars. Rankin (1926/1952) defined listening as "… the ability to understand spoken language" (p. 847). Johnson (1951) expanded the definition to be "… the ability to understand and respond effectively to oral communication" (p. 58). Jones (1956) defined listening as "... a selective process by which sounds communicated by some source are received, critically interpreted, and acted upon by a purposeful listener" (p. 12). Nichols (1974) shortened the definition of listening to "the attachment of meaning to aural symbols" (p. 83). Underwood (1989) simplified the definition of listening to "the activity of paying attention to and trying to get meaning from something we hear" (p. 1). Purdy (1997) defined listening as "the active and dynamic process of attending, perceiving, interpreting, remembering, and responding to the expressed (verbal and nonverbal), needs, concerns, and information offered by other human beings" (p. 8).

Listening is not simply hearing or perceiving speech sounds. It can be concluded, from reviewing a number of proposed definitions, that listening is an active process

involving four interrelated activities: receiving aural stimuli (Jones, 1956; Petrie, 1961/1962; Steil, Barker, & Watson, 1983; Wolvin & Coakley, 1988), attending to the spoken words (Barker, 1971; Petrie, 1961/1962; Underwood, 1989; Wolvin & Coakley, 1988), attaching meaning to the aural symbols (Nichols, 1974; O'Malley, Chamot, & Kupper, 1989; Spearritt, 1962; Wolvin & Coakley, 1988), and responding to oral communication (Johnson, 1951; Purdy, 1997; Steil et al., 1983).

This section has presented some proposed definitions of the word "listening". Listening implies more than just perception of sounds; a listening process also requires an act of attending to the speech sounds and trying to understand the message.

Importance of Listening

Listening is the first language skill developed; it comes before speaking, reading, and writing (Devine, 1982; Lundsteen, 1979; Wolvin & Coakley, 1988). Also, listening is the most frequently used language skill (Morley, 1990, 1999; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). Rankin (1926/1952) investigated the frequency of use of listening in the ordinary lives of adults and found that adults spent 42.1 percent of their total verbal communication time in listening while they spent 31.9 percent , 15 percent, and 11 percent of their verbal communication time speaking, reading, and writing. According to Devine (1982), listening is the primary means by which incoming ideas and information are taken in. Bird (1953) found that female college students spent 42 percent of their total verbal communication time in listening while they spent 25 percent in speaking, 15 percent in reading, and 18 percent in writing. A study conducted by Barker, Edwards, Gaines, Gladney, and Holley (1980) confirmed Bird's view of the primacy of listening and showed that the portion of verbal communication time spent by college students was 52.5 percent in listening, 17.3 percent in reading, 16.3 percent in speaking, and 13.9 percent in writing. Gilbert (1988), on the other hand, noted that students from kindergarten through high school were expected to listen 65-90 percent of the time. Wolvin and Coakley (1988) concluded that, both in and out of the classroom, listening consumes more of daily communication time than other forms of verbal communication.

Listening and academic success. An examination of the literature reveals that

listening is central to the lives of students throughout all levels of educational

development (Coakley & Wolvin, 1997; Feyten, 1991; Spearritt, 1962; Wing, 1986;

Wolvin & Coakley, 1979). Listening is the most frequently used language skill in the

classroom (Ferris, 1998; Murphy, 1991; Vogely, 1998). Both instructors (Ferris & Tagg,

1996) and students (Ferris, 1998) acknowledge the importance of listening

comprehension for success in academic settings. Numerous studies indicated that

efficient listening skills were more important than reading skills as a factor contributing

to academic success (Brown, 1987; Coakley & Wolvin, 1997; Truesdale, 1990).

However, Dunkel's (1991b) study reported that international students' academic success

in the United States and Canada relied more on reading than listening comprehension,

especially for those students in engineering, psychology, chemistry, and computer

science. Thus, the importance of listening in classroom instruction has been less

emphasized than reading and writing.

        Nevertheless, it is evident that listening plays a significant role in the lives of

people. Listening is even more important for the lives of students since listening is used

as a primary medium of learning at all stages of education.

Listening as an Active Process

        In the past, listening comprehension was usually characterized as a passive

activity (Bacon, 1989; Joiner, 1991; Morley, 1990; Murphy, 1991). However, many

theorists realized that listening is not a passive but an active process of constructing

meaning from a stream of sounds (Berne, 1998; Joiner, 1991; McDonough, 1999;

Murphy, 1991; O'Malley et al., 1989; Purdy, 1997; Rivers & Temperly, 1978; Thompson

& Rubin, 1996; Vandergrift, 1998; Weissenrieder, 1987; Wing, 1986). Some scholars

further proposed that listening comprehension is a complex, problem-solving skill

(Byrnes, 1984; Meyer, 1984; Richards, 1983; Wipf, 1984; Wolvin & Coakley, 1979).

According to Purdy (1997), listeners do not passively absorb the words, but actively

attempt to grasp the facts and feelings in what they hear by attending to what the speaker says, to how the speaker says it, and to the context in which the message is delivered.

Knowledge required for listening process. Listening implies more than just hearing or perceiving a stream of sounds; it also requires comprehension of the speaker's intended message. Byrnes (1984) indicated that listening requires "an interplay between all types of knowledge" (p. 322). A listener needs to have some command over major components of the language; these components are phonology, lexicon, syntax, semantics, and text structure (Bacon, 1989; Byrnes, 1984; Dunkel, 1986; Lundsteen, 1979; Paulston & Bruder, 1976; Pearson & Fielding, 1982; Rivers & Temperly, 1978; Shaw, 1992; Snow & Perkins, 1979; Weissenrieder, 1987).

In addition to grammatical competence, listeners also rely on other types of knowledge as they perform a listening comprehension process. One is sociocultural competence, which is the listeners' degree of familiarity with the sociocultural content of the message and knowledge of the social as well as cultural expectations of native speakers of the language. Another is strategic competence, which is listeners' ability to guess meanings of unfamiliar words heard and to use strategies to compensate for their missing knowledge. The other is discourse competence, which is listeners' ability to use cohesive devices to link meaning across sentences and ability to recognize how coherence is used to maintain the unity of the message (Douglas, 1988; Dunkel, 1991b; Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Robinett, 1978; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Shrum & Glisan, 1999).

In summary, listening is an active process of attaching meaning to the speech sounds. As a listener performs a variety of tasks in a comprehension process, he or she has to rely upon various types of knowledge such as grammatical knowledge and sociocultural knowledge.

Listening Comprehension Versus Reading Comprehension

Omaggio Hadley (1993) compared listening and reading comprehension; she then indicated that these two skills could be characterized as problem-solving activities which

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involved the formation of hypotheses, the drawing of inferences, and the resolution of ambiguities and uncertainties in the input in order to assign meaning. Omaggio Hadley further stated that both listening and reading comprehension are highly complex processes that draw on linguistic knowledge and contextual cues. Shrum and Glisan (1999) denoted that both listening and reading are cognitive processes in which listeners and readers draw upon four types of competencies as they attempt to comprehend a message: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Although listening and reading comprehension are similar in their goals and processes, they are different in the nature of discourse: the spoken language versus the written language.

Researchers have outlined the differences between the spoken language and the written language. These following differences also offer insights into the nature of listening and reading tasks.

1. Written language usually appears in a sentence while spoken discourse is generally delivered as a clause at a time (Richards, 1983).

2. Written language tends to be planned and organized while spoken discourse is generally not planned and not well-organized (Richards, 1983).

3. Sentences in written discourse flow in logical sequence whereas spoken discourse contains ungrammatical, incomplete forms. Ordinary speech also has false starts, pauses, hesitations, repetitions, and self-corrections making up between 30 to 50 percent of what is said (Omaggio Hadley, 1993; Richards, 1983; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Ur, 1984).

4. Written material can be reread if not understood immediately; readers can even check the meaning of a word in a dictionary. On the other hand, spoken language must be comprehended instantly, especially when the message cannot be repeated; listeners do not have time to consult a dictionary or review the previous message (Bacon, 1989; Edwards & McDonald, 1993; Wipf, 1984).

This section has centered on the characteristics of listening and reading comprehension. Despite the similarities between some aspects of listening

comprehension and reading comprehension, the nature of discourse is different since one is the spoken language and the other is the written language.

Listening Comprehension

Attention and listening comprehension. Clearly, the general purpose of listening is to comprehend a message (Chastain, 1979; Lund, 1990). Since the listener must understand the message as it is presented, effective listening requires the ability to organize and remember what is presented. Listening then involves giving conscious attention to the sounds for the purpose of gaining meaning. The message must be given adequate attention, or concentration, so that it can supersede all other competing sounds and be comprehended (Barker, 1971; Cayer et al., 1971; Cohen, 1990; Lundsteen, 1979; Samuels, 1984; Wing, 1986). As Gass (1990) pointed out, "nothing in the target language is available for intake into a language learner's existing system unless it is consciously noticed" (p. 136).

Different kinds of comprehension. Lund (1990) categorized comprehension into main-idea comprehension, detail comprehension, and full comprehension. Main-idea comprehension involves actual comprehension of the messages and depends primarily on recognition of vocabulary. Detail comprehension involves getting specific information; it may be performed independently of main-idea comprehension when listeners know in advance what information they are listening for. Full comprehension, which is the goal of listening instruction, involves understanding the whole message--the main ideas and the details.

Comprehension does not always require understanding every word or structure (Ciccone, 1995). However, language learners usually assume that successful comprehension only occurs with total comprehension (Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Ur, 1984). This belief causes some language learners to become frightened when they fail to understand every single word they hear. According to Scarcella and Oxford (1992), students' anxiety about not understanding everything can lead them to "discouragement,

fatigue, and a general sense of failure" (p. 149). Indeed, teachers should help their students understand that it is not necessary to recognize and understand every word in order to function well in listening comprehension.

Comprehension preceding production. Researchers (Gilman & Moody, 1984; Krashen, 1981; Ringbom, 1992; Rivers & Temperly, 1978; Wing, 1986) have ascertained that comprehension comes before production in a child's language acquisition. Babies hear a large amount of language around them for a long time before they speak. Krashen (1981) suggested that children learning a second language typically exhibit a "silent period" (p. 111) during which acquired competence is built up via active listening. Empirical research conducted by Asher (1972), Gary (1975), Postovsky (1974), and Winitz and Reeds (1973) also reported positive results of emphasizing listening and de-emphasizing oral production in the beginning phases of learning a second language. According to Gary and Gary (1981), the benefits of concentrating on listening are that learners do not feel so embarrassed if they do not have to speak, and that the memory load is less if students listen without speaking.

This section has emphasized the importance of giving sufficient attention to a message once it has been perceived during a listening process. However, it is not necessary for a listener to know each word in the speech in order to succeed in comprehending the message.

Tasks for Listening Comprehension

Generally, there are three categories of tasks that should be included when working with listening materials; they are pre-listening activities, listening activities, and post-listening activities (Rogers & Medley, 1988). Pre-listening activities or activities that precede the listening passage should prepare the students for the comprehension task by activating the students' vocabulary and background knowledge or by providing the students with the information needed to comprehend the content of the listening text (Dunkel, 1986; Rogers & Medley, 1988; Vandergrift, 1997). Listening activities should

help the students develop the skill of extracting meaning from the speech stream. Post-listening activities or activities that follow the listening passage, on the other hand, consist of extensions and developments of the listening task (Underwood, 1989); they may emphasize cultural themes and socio-linguistic aspects related to the materials.

Performing to indicate understanding. As a general rule, exercises for listening comprehension are more effective if they are constructed around a task. The students should be "required to do something in response to what they hear that will demonstrate their understanding" (Dunkel, 1986, p. 104; Ur, 1984, p. 25). Examples of tasks are answering questions appropriate to the learners' comprehension ability, taking notes, taking dictation, expressing agreement or disagreement. However, Dunkel (1986) and Wing (1986) suggested that listening activities should require the students to demonstrate listening skills. Consequently, listening exercises should be dependent upon students' skills in listening, rather than skills in reading, writing, or speaking.

There are different types of tasks that the students can perform without speaking, reading, or writing. One is a transferring exercise that involves "receiving information in one form and transferring the information or parts of it into another form" (Richards, 1983, p. 235), such as drawing a picture or a diagram corresponding to the information given (Dirven & Oakeshott-Taylor, 1985; Dunkel, 1986; Lund, 1990; Paulston & Bruder, 1976; Richards, 1983; Ur, 1984). Another kind of listening task is a matching exercise that involves selecting a response from alternatives, such as pictures and objects, that corresponds with what was heard (Lund, 1990; Richards, 1983). Samples of this type of exercise are choosing a picture to match a situation, and placing pictures in a sequence which matches a story or set of events (Richards, 1983). The other type of listening task involves physical movement (Dunkel, 1986; Lund, 1990; Ur, 1984); that is, the students have to respond physically to oral directions.

Teaching rather than testing. The purpose of listening activities should be to teach, rather than to test (Joiner, Adkins, & Eykyn, 1989; Paulston & Bruder, 1976; Rivers & Temperly, 1978). The emphasis should be more on functional listening toward

the development of listening process, and less on memory and recall of details heard (Morley, 1990). Cook (1996) pointed out that students are not being tested on what they actually understood, but on what they can remember, if they have to remember the content for "any period longer than a handful of seconds" (p. 81). The teacher can assist the students in checking their comprehension of the aural input by providing feedback on the students' performance of the tasks (Dunkel, 1986; Paulston & Bruder, 1976). Paulston and Bruder (1976) further stated, "immediate feedback on performance helps keep interest and motivation at high levels" (p. 129).

This section has provided a description as well as some examples of tasks that can be used as exercises for listening comprehension. Not only should listening exercises be related to the listening material, they should also be based predominantly on listening skills. Additionally, instead of grading the students' performance, the teacher should provide feedback to the students so that they can find out how well they listened and how they are progressing.

Listening and English-as-a-Second-Language Learning

Negligence of Listening Skill in Language Instruction

An awareness of the importance of listening comprehension in second-language instruction emerged during the late 1960s (Morley, 1990). Later on, the importance of teaching listening comprehension in the language classroom became a central concern of second-language teachers and scholars; the attention has resulted in an increased number of listening activities in student textbooks (Rubin, 1994). Nevertheless, listening comprehension still receives little time and attention in most second-language programs. A number of students in the survey conducted by Ferris (1998) pointed out that their ESL classes focused primarily on reading and writing skills.

Listening has received little attention in language arts curriculum due to the assumption and the belief that skills in listening develop automatically (Dirven & Oakeshott-Taylor, 1985; Pearson & Fielding, 1982; Spearritt, 1962; Wolvin & Coakley,

1979). However, the skill of listening with comprehension is an essential part of communication and a basis for second-language learning (Robinett, 1978). According to Shrum and Glisan (1999), "listening is used as the vehicle for language acquisition and serves as a springboard for integrating other skills and content" (p. 133). Listening is so important that Pearson and Fielding (1982) suggested, "we ought to grant it its rightful place as we plan, implement, and teach the total language arts curriculum" (p. 626). The importance of listening then should not be underestimated; neither should it be treated trivially in second-language instruction (Morley, 1991).

Scholars such as Asher, Kusudo, and de la Torre (1983), Krashen and Terrell (1983), Omaggio Hadley (1993), Postovsky (1975), and Winitz (1981) have advocated a listening comprehension approach to language instruction. Their work reflects an interest in emphasizing listening comprehension and giving it a significant role in language teaching. Some researchers and second language methodologists further propose that an emphasis upon listening instruction greatly enhances the language learning potentials of ESL students in particular (Dunkel, 1986; Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Nagle & Sanders, 1986; Winitz, 1981).

This section has presented the reason why listening has been a neglected skill in spite of its importance in language instruction. It is assumed that listening comprehension occurs on its own and that growth in listening skills is natural.

Nature of Language Classroom Speech

Teacher talk. Typically, classroom activities do not provide students with natural language or 'real' language. Language teachers tend to adjust their level of speech, whether consciously or not, to their students' comprehension (Herron & Seay, 1991; Secules et al., 1992). This particular way of talking is called "teacher talk" (Robinett, 1978, p. 182), the kind of language in which "teachers try to simplify structures and vocabulary, to pronounce the language very clearly, and in various ways to facilitate comprehension artificially" (p. 214). According to Krashen (1980), teacher talk is characterized by slower production, reduced syntactic complexity and utterance length,

limited lexicon, and more well-formed sentences. Teacher talk, as described by Richard-Amato (1996), may include exaggeration of pronunciation and facial expression, decreasing speech rate and increasing volume, frequent use of pause and dramatization, sentence expansion, rephrasing, and simplification. Krashen (1980) reported that the use of teacher talk is advantageous especially for beginning and intermediate students.

Foreigner talk. The term "foreigner talk" was proposed by Ferguson (1975), who defined it as a simplified speech used when addressing a nonnative speaker who lacked full understanding of the target language. Long (1985) found that nonnative speakers could comprehend a foreigner-talk version of a lecture better than an unmodified version. Foreigner talk is the kind of language used by native speakers on interactions involving native speakers and nonnative speakers (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Varonis & Gass, 1985). There are similarities between foreigner talk and motherese, the speech addressed to young children in their first language (Gass & Selinker, 1994; Richard-Amato, 1996). The characteristic features of foreigner talk are slower speech rate, use of high frequently used words, shorter and simpler sentences, lack of idioms, less use of contractions, and greater pronunciation articulation (Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Firth & Wagner, 1997). Foreign-talk version also includes rephrasings and restatements.

Rates of speech. Speed of speech is one of the key factors affecting listening comprehension in second-language learners (Carrier, 1999; Derwing & Munro, 1997; Tauroza & Allison, 1990; Zhao, 1997). When nonnative listeners experience difficulties in understanding a message, they usually complain that the language is spoken too fast (White, 1987). Flaherty (1979) and Kelch (1985) found that slowing down the flow of speech is one of the characteristics that facilitated comprehension for nonnative speakers. On the other hand, Blau (1990) and Griffiths (1990) claimed that reducing the rate of speech does not significantly aid comprehension except for low-proficiency learners. Nevertheless, Blau (1990) suggested that these findings are difficult to compare and draw conclusions since the researchers used different rates as the norm. Instead of slowing down the rates of speech, Lee and VanPatten (1995) recommended breaking discourse

down into phrases, delivering them as chunks of speech, and maintaining natural intonations and pauses in the attempt to aid listening comprehension.

Listening in real-life situations. Since language classroom speech does not reflect the language of the real world, students usually have trouble understanding people outside of the classroom (Paulston & Bruder, 1976; Porter & Roberts, 1981; Rings, 1986; Robinett, 1978). If the goal of an ESL program is "to prepare our students to cope with English outside the classroom" (Hafernik & Surguine, 1979, p. 341), it is suggested that teachers try to avoid speech modification and/or simplification and to provide students with the kind of language that they are likely to encounter in real-life situations (Bacon, 1989; Robinett, 1978; Ur, 1984). In addition, it has been recommended that teachers use listening materials that consist of samples of natural language from different sources so that students have experience with varieties of topics, situations, and speakers (Nagle & Sanders, 1986; Paulston & Bruder, 1976). To determine what needs to be done to prepare students for real-world situations, Joiner, Adkins, and Eykyn (1989) suggested that teachers examine current practices and materials used in language classes so that teachers can determine what students listen to, how much they listen, and how they listen.

It can be concluded that to better prepare students and enable them to react accurately to the spoken language outside the classroom, it is necessary that teachers provide their students with ample opportunities to listen to samples of natural or real language in the classroom.

The Role of Input in Language Learning

Comprehensible input. In communicative situations, native speakers of English often adjust or modify their speech in order to make it more comprehensible to nonnative speakers of their language (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Krashen, 1981; Long, 1983a). This is because it is believed that "mere exposure to L2 input does not ensure comprehension and intake of the L2 information; rather learners need to have comprehensible (oftentimes 'modified') input for second language comprehension and acquisition to occur" (Chiang &

Dunkel, 1992, p. 347). At the beginning stage, the teacher may make the input comprehensible by associating it with visual cues and/or demonstrated actions. Paraphrasing, repetition of key points, and acting out meanings are some of the ways speakers can help convey meaning and make the input more understandable (Peregoy & Boyle, 1997; Pica, 1994).

Characteristics of comprehensible input. Chaudron (1983, 1985), Krashen (1980, 1982, 1983, 1985), and Long (1985) are among those who have tried to identify what it is that makes input comprehensible to the learners (Pica, Young, & Doughty, 1987). One kind of comprehensible input is the speech used by native speakers to nonnative speakers, or what is called foreigner talk. This is the input that has been modified or simplified through repetition and paraphrase of words, phrases, or sentences; restriction of vocabulary to common or familiar items; and reduction in sentence length and complexity through removal of subordinate clauses. Caretaker speech in first-language acquisition and teacher talk in second-language acquisition also provide ideal input that is easily comprehensible to learners

The language to which the learner is primarily exposed must be interesting and relevant for the learner. The language must also be meaningful and comprehensible (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Dirven & Oakeshott-Taylor, 1985; Krashen, 1998; Richard-Amato, 1996). In addition, the input must be at the learner's current level of development (Krashen, 1982; Omaggio Hadley, 1993; Richard-Amato, 1996). Nevertheless, Krashen (1981, 1985) claimed that learners understand language that contains structures that are a little beyond their current level of competence. Krashen states, "We move from i, our current level, to i +1, the next level along the natural order, by understanding input containing i +1" (1985, p. 2).

This section has centered on the necessity of providing language students with comprehensible language input. In order for second-language comprehension and acquisition to develop, language learners need to be primarily exposed to the language which is not only meaningful and comprehensible but also relevant to their level of competence.

Krashen's Input Hypothesis. Krashen's input hypothesis or comprehension hypothesis maintains that input must be comprehended by the learner if it is to assist the acquisition process (Krashen, 1998). Input that is comprehended is the primary source of acquisition of the grammar and vocabulary of the target language. Krashen further maintains that learners will begin to produce the language naturally when they have enough exposure to comprehensible input (Omaggio Hadley, 1993). According to the input hypothesis, the input must be comprehensible in that it is near the learner's actual level of development, i , but then it must stretch beyond that to include concepts and structures that the learner has not yet acquired but he/she is ready to acquire, $i+1$ (Dunn & Lantolf, 1998; Krashen, 1985, 1991; Loschky, 1994; Richard-Amato, 1996).

Krashen asserts that language learners will understand unacquired structures from contextual cues in the message or from extralinguistic cues (Markee, 1997; Shrum & Glisan, 1999). Learners' knowledge of the world as well as their previously acquired linguistic competence also helps them understand the message. As a result of experience and background knowledge, older acquirers will obtain more comprehensible input in several ways since their greater experience and knowledge of the world helps make the input they hear more comprehensible (Krashen, 1985).

If listening is to be used as a primary vehicle for language instruction, it is necessary that the students be given a maximum amount of comprehensible input (Joiner, 1984). Asher's Total Physical Response method, Terrell's Natural Approach, and Lozanov's Suggestopedia are methods which have been shown to be significantly better than more traditional approaches. These methods have one major characteristic in common; that is, they provide a large amount of comprehensible input in the second-language classroom (Krashen, 1985).

According to Krashen, the goal of the language instruction is to bring the students to the point where they are able to use the language outside the classroom in understanding and communicating with native speakers of the language. Krashen claims that if the students reach this level of competence, they will be able to continue to improve their language skill from the comprehensible input received on the outside.

In conclusion, Krashen's input hypothesis proposes that language learners can acquire language that is directed at their actual level of competence. Krashen further asserts that contextual cues in the message together with students' knowledge of the world will also help the students understand language which includes some structures that are somewhat beyond the students' current level of competence.

Modified input. Researchers propose that comprehensible input is necessary for acquisition (Ellis, 1995; Krashen, 1985; Platt & Brooks, 1994; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993). Nevertheless, simply ensuring that input is comprehensible is not sufficient to promote acquisition (Ellis, 1995; Gass, Mackey, & Pica, 1998; Markee, 1997). It is comprehended input not comprehensible input that is important for acquisition (Ellis, Tanaka, & Yamazaki, 1994; Gass, 1988; Gass & Varonis, 1994). According to Loschky (1994), a way to increase comprehension is for speaker to modify input directly at nonnative listener. Input modifications may be classified as either simplifications or elaborations. Simplified input is modified to facilitate learners' comprehension by using less complex grammatical structures and less complex lexical items. Elaborations, on the other hand, include repeating, explaining, and paraphrasing. Research results by Gass and Varonis (1994), Yano, Long, and Ross (1994), and Ellis, Tanaka, and Yamazaki (1994) show that modification positively affects comprehension in nonnative speakers.

Long's Interaction Hypothesis. Long (1983b, 1985, 1996) claims that interaction facilitates second-language development. Long also asserts that learners receive comprehensible input by actively negotiating information with their conversational partners. As meaning is negotiated, nonnative speakers can strive to control over the communication process; by that means, they cause their partners to provide input that is more comprehensible (Gass, 1997; Long, 1983b, 1996; Oliver, 1998). Interactions present optimal language learning opportunities because conversational partners can make use of various resources including repetition and facial expression. As a result, comprehensibility and acquisition is better ensured through modified interaction than

through modified input (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Ellis et al., 1994; Johnstone, 1995; Loschky, 1994; Rubin, 1994).

Interactional modifications can be classified as clarification requests, confirmation checks, and comprehension checks. Clarification requests are the utterances made by the listener to clarify what the speaker has said. Confirmation checks are the utterances made by the listener to establish that the preceding utterance has been heard and understood correctly. Comprehension checks, on the other hand, are the utterances made by the speaker to check whether the preceding utterance has been correctly understood by the listener (Long, 1983b). Negotiation of meaning has been shown to have positive effect on second-language comprehension and production (Gass & Selinker, 1994; Loschky, 1994; Mackey & Philp, 1998).

Chiang and Dunkel (1992) found that elaborations made to input during negotiated interaction provide learners with comprehension to a greater extent than did simplified input. Nevertheless, modifications of interaction are effective when learners have difficulty in understanding information; they are considered excessive if input is easily understood (Ellis et al., 1994). Several studies further emphasize the relationship among interaction, comprehension, and second-language acquisition as one in which interaction allows learners to comprehend input and in which comprehended input promotes acquisition (Gass et al., 1998).

It can be concluded that comprehended input is necessary for language acquisition. Even though simplifications may facilitate comprehension, it is widely agreed that interactional modifications, through the negotiation of meaning between speaker and listener, effectively increase comprehension in nonnative speakers. Lack of opportunity to negotiate meaning is therefore considered an impediment to acquisition.

Input Processing and Intake

VanPatten (1990, 1996) asserts that only part, not all, of input is available for language processing. That part of input that learners process is generally called "intake", the word coined by Corder in 1967. It is the learners who ultimately control the intake

(Corder, 1967; Gass & Selinker, 1994). There are two aspects that influence intake. One aspect consists of the current state of the learner's knowledge of the target language; the other aspect involves the mechanisms for perception and learning (Chaudron, 1985). The conversion of input into intake involves the process called input processing. According to VanPatten (1996), input processing refers to "the derivation of intake from input during comprehension" (p. 10). After the stage of input processing, intake then becomes part of the learner's developing linguistic system that is later used to produce output in the language (Shrum & Glisan, 1999).

Definitions of intake. Corder (1967) explains, "input is 'what goes in' not what is available for going in, and we may reasonably suppose that it is the learner who controls this input, or more properly his intake" (p. 165). Chaudron (1985) defines intake as "the mediating process between the target language available to learners as input and the learners' internalized set of L2 rules and strategies for second language development" (p. 1). For Schmidt (1990), intake is "that part of the input that the learner notices" (p. 139). In his study, Leow (1993) defines intake as "that part of the input that has been attended to by second language learners while processing the input" (p. 334). Sharwood Smith (1993) refers to intake as "that part of input that has actually been processed by the learner and turned into knowledge of some kind" (p. 167). According to VanPatten (1996), intake is "the input that has been processed in some way by the learner during the act of comprehension" (p. 10).

It can be concluded that intake is distinct from input. Input, or language data to which a learner is exposed, must pass an input processing stage before part of it can become intake, or the language data available for further processing.

The Role of Output in Language Learning

The output represents the product of language knowledge; it is a part of the entire language process (Gass, 1997). In 1985, Swain introduced the notion of comprehensible or "pushed" output by claiming that learners are pushed in their production as a necessary

part of making themselves understood. Through the process of negotiation of meaning, language learners have opportunities to manipulate their production and to produce comprehensible output (Oliver, 1998; Swain, 1985). The output then becomes a method by which additional input is generated for the learners (Gass, 1997). In addition, the output enables language learners to improve their fluency (Swain, 1995). The results of study by Ellis and He (1999) show that the modified output condition works better than the input conditions, either premodified input or interactionally modified input. According to Swain (1985), "Being 'pushed' in output … is a concept parallel to that of the $i + 1$ of comprehensible input. Indeed, one might call this the 'comprehensible output' hypothesis" (p. 249).

This section presented the significant function of output in language-learning process. It can be concluded that both comprehensible input and comprehensible output are important for second-language acquisition.

Inner Speech and Language Learning

Vygotsky (1962) distinguishes between external speech and inner speech. External speech is spoken or written speech; it is expressed in words or sentences. Inner speech, on the other hand, is speech for oneself; it takes place inside one's own mind. According to de Guerrero (1994), inner speech is any type of language that occurs in the mind and that is not vocalized. Inner speech may comprise sounds, words, phrases, sentences, and even conversations. Functionally, inner speech seems to be the primary medium for the formation and development of verbal thought. De Guerrero (1994) indicates that inner speech is involved in several mnemonic techniques including silent repetition, repeating the text aloud, and spontaneous recall. Additionally, inner speech can be used in imitating pronunciation, answering questions in the mind, and rehearsing texts for oral production.

Listening and speaking. Vygotsky (1962) maintains that inner speech precedes external speech. While external speech is a process of transforming a thought into words,

inner speech proceeds in the opposite direction; that is, inner speech is a process of assimilating speech into thought. Inner speech develops from listening to others and repeating the heard speech. The study conducted by de Guerrero (1994) suggests that inner speech has an essential role in the process of understanding and expressing meaning in the second language. According to Ushakova (1994), communication is a two-way process in which two conversational partners speak at the same time; the person who speaks is the one who thinks aloud, and the other who listens is the one who thinks or speaks to oneself. Along with internal and external speech, thought develops simultaneously.

It can be concluded that inner speech is opposed to external language. In speaking, the transition takes place from the internal to the external direction. In understanding, however, the opposite movement occurs.

Maturation and Language Learning

Vygotsky (1962) maintains that there are two aspects of development; one is maturation and the other is learning. Piaget (1979) believes that maturation precedes learning. This belief on one level of cognitive development indicates that a learner must be exposed to input that can be handled without difficulty. In other words, the input must be at the learner's actual level of development. However, Vygotsky states, "success in learning a foreign language is contingent on a certain degree of maturity in the native language" (1962, p. 110); this is because the learner can transfer to the new language the system of meanings he or she has already possessed in the native language. Thus, Vygotsky (1978) believes that learning precedes maturation. This standpoint of two levels of development asserts that a learner progresses from an actual developmental level to a potential developmental level; the potential developmental level becomes the next actual developmental level through learning. Vygotsky's view therefore emphasizes that learning should be one stop ahead of development.

Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development. According to Vygotsky, the learner brings two levels of development to the learning task. One is an actual developmental level and the other is a potential developmental level. The two levels represent what the learner can do and what the learner will be able to do in the future respectively (Herron, 1994; Johnstone, 1995). Between the two developmental levels is the learner's Zone of Proximal Development, which Vygotsky defined as:

> the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. The Zone of Proximal Development defines those functions that have not yet matured, but are in the process of maturation (1978, p. 86).

The distance between the learner's individual competence and the capacity to produce language with assistance constitutes the Zone of Proximal Development. This zone is likely to be different for various learners according to the characteristics of the learners. As a result, the amount and kind of assistance will vary for different students. Different types of assistance which the teacher can provide the students are encouragement, information, vocabulary items, or the direction of attention. Through interaction with others, the learner's potential developmental level will become the next actual developmental level.

In summary, Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development represents the distance between the learner's individual capacity and the capacity to produce language with assistance. To facilitate language learning and acquisition, it has been recommended that teachers provide the students with both comprehensible input and meaningful interaction.

The Role of Background Knowledge in Language Learning

Learning involves integration of new knowledge with prior knowledge (Gass, 1997). New information or new concepts are more likely to be understood when they can be related to something the learner already knows. When the student fails to comprehend in communicative situations, it is usually attributed to his or her language-specific deficiency. For instance, a grammatical rule was misapplied, or a word was not in the student's vocabulary (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983). The listener's knowledge of the world is being increasingly considered as an important factor in comprehension. This knowledge extends beyond an understanding of words and meanings to include a vast array of scripts, or what one knows about specific situations, that can aid in the comprehension of unfamiliar listening material (Wing, 1986). Knowledge of the world is based on the learners' experiences; it enables the students to make references and form expectations.

Schema theory. Research findings from cognitive psychology that relate to teaching listening comprehension concern the effect of listener's background knowledge on the comprehension of discourse (Bacon, 1989; Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Rubin, 1994). The role of background knowledge in language comprehension has been formalized as schema theory (Bartlett, 1932; Rumelhart, 1980; Rumelhart & Ortony, 1977). According to Platt and Brooks (1994), schema theorists provide the insight that listener's prior knowledge plays an important role in the comprehension process. One fundamental tenet of schema theory is that any text, either spoken or written, does not carry meaning by itself. The basic premise of schema theory is that an individual comprehends material by using prior knowledge to produce an anticipated meaning. Therefore, comprehension depends on an interaction between the structure and content of the material and what the individual brings to the material (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Markham & Latham, 1987).

Script and schema theory describe the role of prior knowledge in comprehension. Richards (1983) explains,

Script or schema knowledge is what we know about particular situations, and the goals, participants, and procedures which are commonly associated

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with them. Much of our knowledge of the world is organized around scripts, that is, memory for typical episodes that occur in specific situations (p. 223).

Scripts, therefore, are helpful in understanding input relating to commonplace situations. The advantages of knowledge of scripts are that they enable the listeners to anticipate what they will hear, to create expectations of what they are about to hear, and to infer meaning where a portion of the text was incompletely understood (Bacon, 1992; Long, 1989; O'Malley et al., 1989; Tsui & Fullilove, 1998). Nevertheless, Cook (1996) indicates that while some scripts are the same for speakers of different languages, other scripts are different from one country to another.

Background knowledge / prior knowledge. Comprehending words, sentences, and entire texts involves more than just relying on one's linguistic knowledge. Comprehension involves the student's knowledge of the world as well (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Gass, 1997). Therefore, inadequate background knowledge may lead the student to miscomprehend the material. Researchers (Bacon, 1989; Gass, 1997; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Long, 1990; Rubin, 1994) maintained that the students' background knowledge may either facilitate comprehension in some cases or interfere with comprehension in others. Nevertheless, it should be easier for students to process a given text with which they have prior knowledge or experience than with unknown subject matter (Joiner et al., 1989; Samuels, 1984; Snow & Perkins, 1979). Research results indicate that providing background information and helping students make connections to previous knowledge might facilitate comprehension of the new material (Dunkel, 1991a; Herron, 1994; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994).

This section has provided a description of schema theory which explains the role of background knowledge in language comprehension. Schema-based learning theory asserts that the learners' prior knowledge is a significant factor in comprehension of a text; this is because background knowledge may either enhance or impede the learners' comprehension of the material.

Cultural Background and Second-Language Comprehension

When learners are confronted with a topic regarding another culture about which they have no anchoring ideas, the potential for miscomprehension is heightened (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Johnstone, 1995; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994). One of the most obvious reasons why a particular content schema may fail to exist for the learner is that the schema is culturally specific and is not part of a particular learner's cultural background (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Klein, 1995). Nonnative speakers' scripts may differ in degree and content from target-language scripts. This poses additional problems for the nonnative speakers (Bacon, 1989; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Long, 1989; Richards, 1983).

Rivers (1968) recommended that the strong bond between culture and language be maintained for the students to have a complete understanding of the meaning of language. She believes that differences in values and attitudes are among the main sources of problems in language learning. Culture-specific values can be a significant factor in comprehension if the values expressed by the text are different from the values held by the learner.

When students do not have previous knowledge of a particular event or of the context in which it occurs, it is necessary for the teacher to spend extra time discussing and providing students with background information (Brinton & Gaskill, 1978). The degree to which listeners are able to merge input with previously acquired knowledge structures, or schemata, determines how successful they will be in comprehending. This linking of new and existing knowledge helps listeners make sense of the text more quickly. The use of contextual and background information aids the student's understanding by limiting the number of possible text interpretations (Shrum & Glisan, 1999).

In conclusion, since the schema is culturally specific, the learners who are nonnative speakers of the language will have different scripts and values and tend to experience some problems in language learning. To prepare the students and to eliminate

miscomprehension of the text, the teacher should spend time discussing cultural matters with the learners.

The Use of Aural Authentic Materials

Definitions of Authentic Materials

In the literature on second-language acquisition and learning, the term "authentic materials" means different things to different people. It, therefore, has been defined in a number of ways. The most common definition for second-language research is unaltered texts that are generated by native speakers and for native speakers (Bacon, 1992; Joiner, 1991; Joiner et al., 1989; Rings, 1986; Rogers & Medley, 1988; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

From various descriptions of authenticity, Rings (1986) concluded that "For a particular type of text, the speaker must be 'authentic,' the situation must be authentic, and only then will the language content and structure be authentic for that text type" (p. 205). Rogers and Medley (1988) used the term "authentic" to refer to "language samples ... that reflect a naturalness of form, and an appropriateness of cultural and situational context that would be found in the language as used by the native speakers" (p. 468).

This section has presented some definitions of the term "authentic materials". Generally, authentic language is that which is used by native speakers communicating orally or in writing.

Authentic Materials and Language Performance

The need for and usefulness of authentic materials have been increasingly acknowledged. Empirical studies have confirmed positive results obtained by listeners who are given opportunities to interact with authentic oral texts (Porter & Roberts, 1981; Shrum & Glisan, 1999). On the elementary-school level, Duquette, Dunnett, and Papalia (1989) reported that children using authentic texts improved linguistically. However,

Kienbaum, Barrow, Russell, and Welty (1986) found no significant differences in language performance of children using authentic materials compared with those in a more traditional classroom context.

Herron and Seay (1991), in their study conducted with intermediate-level students, found that students who listened to authentic radio tapes as a substitute for regular classroom activities demonstrated significantly greater listening comprehension than those students for whom the authentic radio program had not been a part of the semester's curriculum. Their research indicates that listening-comprehension skill improves with increased exposure to authentic speech.

According to Omaggio Hadley (1993) and Rogers and Medley (1988), if students are to develop a functional proficiency in the language and to use the language communicatively in the real world, they must begin to encounter the language of that world in the classroom. That is, they need ample opportunities to see and hear the language used as the primary medium of communication among native speakers. Also, they need opportunities to practice using the language to cope with everyday situations they might encounter outside the classroom. The teacher must bring massive amounts of authentic materials into the classroom and make them consistently accessible to the students (Grittner, 1980; Lund, 1990; Meyer, 1984; Rogers & Medley, 1988; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994).

Even though the use of authentic texts is necessary, it does not mean that the teacher should abandon the use of materials created for instructional purposes. Rather, a blend of the two seems to be more appropriate (Omaggio Hadley, 1993). Joiner, Adkins, and Eykyn (1989) assert that it is not necessary for students to listen to authentic materials every day. Furthermore, Omaggio Hadley (1993) claims that finding authentic discourse for listening comprehension is much more difficult than obtaining and selecting authentic texts for reading. She further says that unmodified authentic discourse often presents a random assortment of vocabulary, structures, functions, content, situations, and lengths.

An increasing number of linguists and language educators emphasize the importance of authentic oral texts very early in the language experience (Bacon &

Finnemann, 1990; Wing, 1986). Authentic materials can even be used from the first week of the first semester; however, the materials must relate to learners' life experiences and contain appropriate features that enhance comprehension at this level (Rings, 1986; Vandergrift, 1997). Feyten (1991) asserts that learners can handle authentic, unedited discourse although their success in comprehending may range from very little to considerable. Meyer (1984) and Richards (1983) suggest providing students with essential background knowledge and simple tasks to perform while listening.

Hansen and Jensen (1994) contend that students from all proficiency levels should be exposed to natural speech as a regular part of their listening practice. According to Bacon (1989), less-proficient students can understand and benefit from authentic texts. Further she posits that an early exposure to such texts will help these students develop useful listening strategies for more complex tasks later on. However, the texts should be culturally relevant to the experience of the students.

It can be concluded, from this section, that there is an increasing interest in implementing authentic materials in a language classroom so that the students have opportunities to hear and practice using the language they will encounter outside the classroom. Also, several research studies have shown students' improvement in language performance as a result of exposure to authentic language in the classroom.

Nature of Authentic Texts

Characteristics of authentic speech. The problem with authentic texts is that they have long been perceived as being too difficult for students to understand (Ciccone, 1995; Lund, 1990; Rogers & Medley, 1988; Ur, 1984). Beginning language learners may experience extreme frustration when confronted by an authentic text. However, Cook (1996) asserts that difficulty depends upon the task that is used with the material. Comprehension of authentic material is facilitated by some characteristics of the spoken language such as pausing, repeating, rephrasing, and the use of clauses rather than sentences (Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994; Wing, 1986). Authentic texts are more redundant than most texts prepared for language learners; the redundancy of these texts gives the

students more clues to comprehension (Bacon, 1989; Gilman & Moody, 1984; Meyer, 1984; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994). Nevertheless, other characteristics of the spoken language such as reduced and ungrammatical forms would, on the other hand, be expected to hinder understanding (Wing, 1986). In addition, the fact that authentic texts are often delivered at rapid speed can be intimidating to some students (Joiner et al., 1989).

Authentic speech and cultural aspect. Authentic texts, by their very nature, are more culturally rich and interesting (Bacon, 1992; Gilman & Moody, 1984; Joiner et al., 1989). Shrum and Glisan (1999, p. 58) state, "Because these texts are prepared for native speakers, they reflect the details of everyday life in a culture as well as its societal values." Scarcella and Oxford (1992) assert that authentic language is highly motivating to students, particularly when it is keyed to subjects that students are concerned about. Fully exploited, authentic texts give students direct access to cultural information and help them use the new language authentically themselves, to communicate meaning in meaningful situations (Rivers, 1987; Rogers & Medley, 1988). Authentic texts, unlike their pedagogically contrived counterparts, promote student learning and interest by presenting the culture in a natural way (Herron & Seay, 1991; Joiner et al., 1989; Nostrand, 1989; Rogers & Medley, 1988). Stagich (1998) maintains that understanding cultural context, through understanding of cultural situations and views, is the most effective way to learn real meaning of the language.

This section has centered on the characteristics of natural spoken language. While some aspects of authentic texts, such as redundancy, can facilitate comprehension, other aspects, such as reduced forms, may impede comprehension of the material. Nevertheless, authentic materials provide an effective means for both presenting real language and integrating culture.

Implementing Authentic Materials in Classroom Listening

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

The critical consideration in choosing appropriate materials for second-language students is authenticity. Classroom listening must prepare students for real listening; aural authentic texts will expose students to real language from the beginning of their language study (Bacon, 1992; Morton, 1999). However, in order to ensure transfer to real-life conversational situations, the teacher has to provide language material that is presented with authentic native accents and intonation at a speed of utterance that is normal for native speakers of the language (Grittner, 1980). Students working with authentic materials will gain valuable practice in the specific skill of making sense of live speech without necessarily understanding every word of structure; then, an increase in listening comprehension is a natural consequence of this practice (Herron & Seay, 1991).

Herron and Seay (1991) believe that students, with proper instructional planning by the teacher, can be led to extract general and specific meaning from oral authentic texts while improving general listening-comprehension skills. Using authentic materials allows students to experience early in their study the rewards of learning a language. Rivers (1987) maintains that students who work with authentic materials have an interest in the language that is based on what they know it can do for them. Bacon and Finnemann (1990) found that when students are properly prepared, authentic materials have a positive effect on both comprehension and motivation. The challenge for the second-language teacher, therefore, is to identify authentic materials of potential interest

to students and to prepare the students for dealing with these texts in a meaningful way (Wing, 1986).

In the past, students demonstrated successful listening by correctly answering comprehension questions presented after the material. Nowadays, however, it is more likely that students are required to complete a task while listening and/or a follow-up activity that involves using information in the material in some realistic ways (Joiner, 1991). Lund (1990) even recommends a trend toward bringing classroom-listening instruction and practice as close to real world listening as is possible.

In conclusion, since a goal of classroom listening is to prepare students for real-life listening outside the classroom, it is necessary to implement aural authentic materials at all levels of language instruction and listening-comprehension training.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology that was employed for the present study and the rationale behind the steps that were taken. Procedures for student selection, data collection, as well as data analysis are also discussed.

Summary of the Study

The primary research question addressed in the current study was:

> What are the influences of aural authentic materials on the
> listening comprehension in students of English as a second
> language?

The secondary research questions asked in the study were:

1. What kinds of learning strategies are most frequently used by ESL students listening to aural authentic materials in the classroom?

2. What are the influences of aural authentic materials on ESL students' attitudes towards learning English?

The fundamental objective of the study was to examine the influences of authentic materials, or language that is used among native speakers of the language, on listening skills in students of English as a second language. Specifically, the study considered how the use of aural authentic materials in ESL instruction facilitated or impeded students' listening comprehension. Another objective of the study was to describe the learning strategies ESL students normally used when they experienced authentic listening

materials. The other objective of the current study was to determine the consequence of aural authentic materials on ESL students' attitudes towards learning the English language.

In order to achieve these objectives, all international students attending the High Intermediate Academic Listening and Vocabulary Development class at a language training center were invited to participate in the research study. The students who voluntarily cooperated in the research participated in two face-to-face interview sessions for data collection. The first interview was conducted in order to obtain information about the students' educational background and their English-language listening experiences. The second interview was conducted in order to determine the students' attitudes and points of view on the use of aural authentic materials in ESL listening. Both the first and the second interviews were audio-taped. One class session was also video-taped to examine the listening activities in the classroom. The data sources of the current study are presented in Table 1.

To analyze the data, transcripts were made of the interviews; notes were made from the videotape on the listening activities and students' performance in the classroom. These data were triangulated with the information obtained from the interviews. All data were examined in order to answer the research questions about the influences of aural authentic texts on listening comprehension in ESL students and about students' attitudes towards language learning as a result of implementing authentic materials in language instruction. The rationale behind each step will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

Table 1   Sources of Data

Time Periods	Data Types
Pre-Observation	Interview
	Demographic Questionnaire
	Self-Evaluation Questionnaire
Observation	Notes of Class Observation
	Videotape of Class
Post-Observation	Interview
	Learning Strategy Questionnaire
	Self-Evaluation Questionnaire
	Teacher Interview

Student Selection

Selection

The criteria that were set in selecting students for the present study were the following:

1. Geographically, the students must be from countries where English is not the native language.

2. Linguistically, the students must be who resided in the United States at the time of the study and whose mother tongue was not the English language.

3. Academically, the students must be enrolled in a program in English as a second language.

In addition to the above criteria, the students should have stayed in the United States for less than one year; this is to assure the researcher that the students had received minimal experiences with aural authentic materials in classrooms.

Recruitment

The site for the recruitment of the students was set at a major research institution in the southeast of the United States. To recruit students, the researcher contacted the director of the ESL training program at the university. After that, the researcher informed the teacher who taught the High Intermediate Academic Listening and Vocabulary Development class of the objectives and the procedures of the present study.

When the researcher was introduced to the students who were attending the High Intermediate Academic Listening and Vocabulary Development class, the researcher informed the students about the basic procedures of the research study. The students were notified that participation in this research would consist of their regular attendance in the language class, two face-to-face interviews, each lasting about one hour, and completion of some questionnaires. Students signed and returned the consent form in Appendix A to the researcher if they were willing to participate in the research study. In order to ensure that student performance was not influenced by the goals of the study, the researcher did not explain the purpose of the study to the students. Student recruitment was completed when the students agreed to take part in the current study. Demographic data of the students participated in the study is described in the following section.

Demographic Data of the Students

Seven students, two males and five females, who enrolled in a seven-week-session High Intermediate Academic Listening and Vocabulary Development class at an English language center, participated in the study. The average age of the students was 26 ($SD = 6.57$) years, with the maximum of 38, the minimum of 16, and the median of 25 years. The average length of students' residence in the United States was 4 ($SD = 2.64$)

months, with the maximum of 9, the minimum of 2, and the median of 5 months. The students had been learning English for an average of 9 ($SD = 3.34$) years, with the maximum of 15, the minimum of 6, and the median of 7 years. The students came from five different national and first-language backgrounds--Japan, Korea, China, Brazil, and Puerto Rico; they were speakers of Japanese, Korean, Chinese, Portuguese, and Spanish respectively.

The students' demographic data obtained from the background questionnaire (Appendix B) is presented in Table 2. Names of the students were changed in order to protect their identities. Each student was assigned a name that was easily related to his/her home country. The data showed that while all seven students used their native language at home, two students, one from Brazil and the other from Puerto Rico, also used the target language, English, in communicating with the family members.

The background questionnaire revealed the reasons that students learned English. Six out of seven students in this study took an English-language class because of the need for future career. Five out of seven students learned English because they were interested in the language. Three out of seven students took the ESL class in order to prepare themselves for higher education in the United States. The background questionnaire also revealed that six out of seven students in the study enjoyed learning the language.

Table 2   Demographic Data of Students

Name	Age	Gender*	Home country	Mother tongue	Language spoken at home	Enjoy learning language	Reasons for learning English**
Akiko	29	F	Japan	Japanese	Japanese	Enjoy	1,5
Cheng	24	F	China	Chinese	Chinese	Enjoy	1,2,3,4,5,6
Choi	26	F	Korea	Korean	Korean	Enjoy	5
Enrique	16	M	Puerto Rico	Spanish	Spanish & English	Enjoy	1,3,4
Kim	25	M	Korea	Korean	Korean	Not enjoy	4,5
Sonya	38	F	Brazil	Portuguese	Portuguese & English	Enjoy	1,3,5,6
Yuki	25	F	Japan	Japanese	Japanese	Enjoy	1,5

*   F - Female   **   1 - interested in the language

    M - Male   2 - interested in the culture

                            3 - have friends who speak the language

                            4 - need it for future education

                            5 - need it for future career

                            6 - need it for travel

<div align="center">Classroom Environment</div>

Setting

       The setting for the study was the classroom for High Intermediate Academic Listening and Vocabulary Development at the language institute. The classroom was on the ground floor of a two-storied building. Figure 1 displays the layout of the classroom. The teacher normally took the same seat each day; the students' seating, however, generally depended on preference and availability at the time the students arrived at class. The researcher, on the other hand, sat on one side of the classroom where she could observe the whole class at once and not miss activities that were going on in any part of the classroom.

Time

       Students attended the class in High Intermediate Academic Listening and Vocabulary Development five days a week, from Monday through Friday, for two hours each day, from 10:00 to 12:00 in the morning. The class activities had been observed for a total of 25 days, or 50 hours.
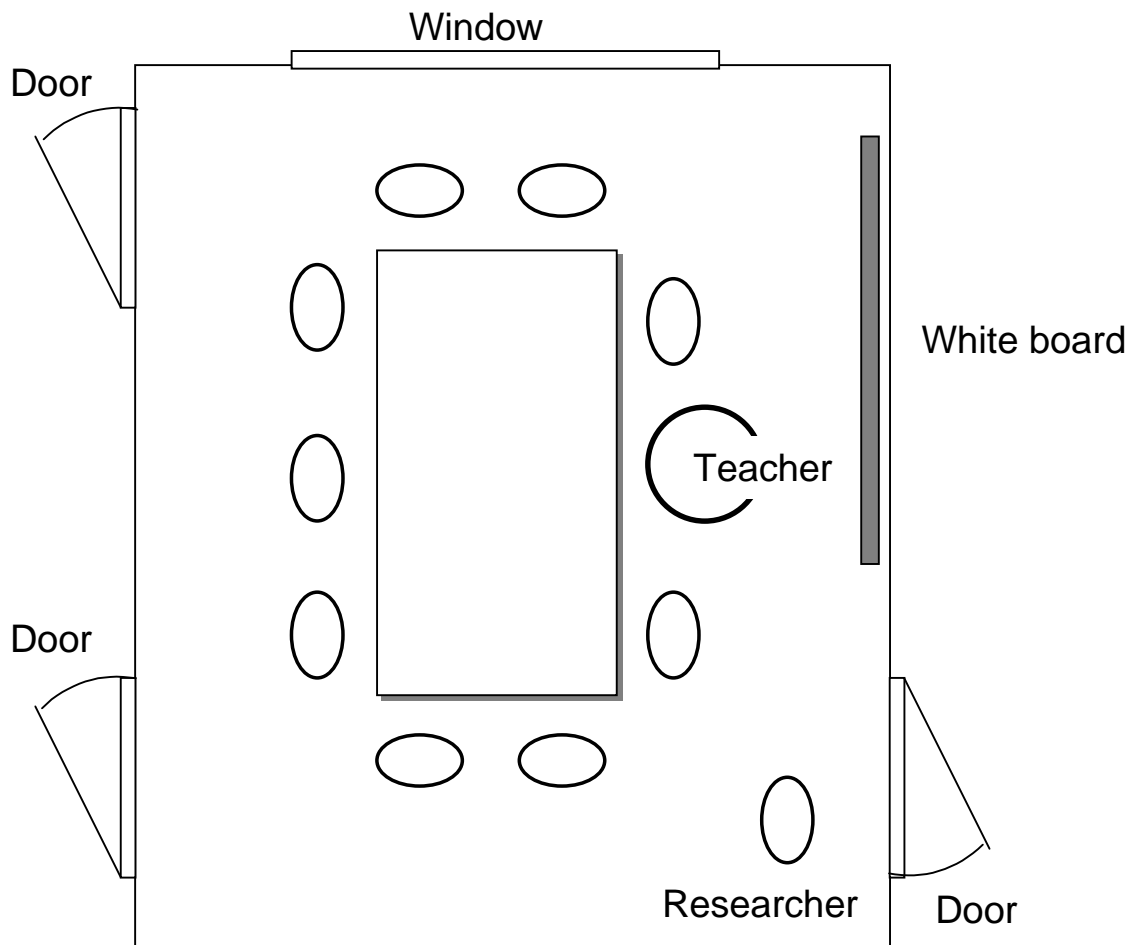
Figure 1   **Classroom layout**

<center>Classroom Practices</center>

<u>Listening Materials Implemented in Class</u>

   The textbook used in this particular ESL program was <u>Interactive Listening on Campus: Authentic Academic Mini-Lectures</u>, by James (1992). The book was to provide intermediate-level ESL students with opportunities to listen to mini-lectures about academic topics. The book was divided into two parts. Each unit in the first part was composed of two mini-lectures delivered by two different native speakers addressing the same topic. On the other hand, each unit in the second part was composed of a single mini-lecture. Each mini-lecture ranged from one and a half to three and a half minutes in length. According to James (1992), all the language heard on the cassette tape was spoken before the transcripts were written. The subject matter of the mini-lectures reflected varied academic disciplines including business, history, sociology, engineering, general science, psychology, and computer science. After listening to each mini-lecture, the students were to complete various tasks in order to develop two academic-listening skills: listening for the main idea, and note-taking.

   In addition to the use of mini-lecture tapes, the teacher sometimes invited guest speakers to the class so that the students had opportunities to practice listening to different native speakers. Furthermore, the teacher took the students outside the classroom on a few occasions when the students could experience the use of real language in the real world.

<u>Class Procedure</u>

   Generally, the teacher started each lesson with a few pre-listening exercises, that is, discussion about the illustrations in the textbook, pronunciation of vocabulary items, and matching definitions with vocabulary items. Then the teacher normally introduced an audio-tape containing a mini-lecture. Each mini-lecture ranged from 1.38 to 3.30 minutes in length, with the mean length of 2.40 minutes. The mini-lecture revealed a wide range

<center>48</center>

of academic topics including business, engineering, computer science, general science, and so on.

When the teacher began to play the mini-lecture tape for the first time, she generally paused the tape after a few sentences, to ask the students to identify the vocabulary items they had practiced during the pre-listening phase, before she continued the tape. After the students had listened to the entire mini-lecture for a few times, they did some exercises related to what they had heard. The exercises during the listening phase primarily involved indicating the main idea and the supporting details of the mini-lecture. Then, the teacher played the tape one or two more times so that the students could practice taking notes. Eventually, the teacher gave each student a transcript of the mini-lecture.

When the teacher planned to take the students outside the classroom, she prepared the students by activating the students' vocabulary items and/or their background knowledge related to the upcoming event. The teacher also assigned certain tasks that the students had to perform or complete, during the listening activity, such as answering questions and getting specific information about some things related to the listening material. When they were back to the classroom, the teacher normally had the students discuss and share their experiences, involving the outside activities, with the rest of the class.

Teacher's Pedagogy

The teacher defined authentic materials as what was used, in everyday situations, for people who had grown up in the culture. However, the teacher felt that, for ESL listening, authentic language had to include materials particularly generated for ESL students but were authentic in nature; for instances, the language was not "geared down," there was "no artificial way of speaking," and there was "no reduction of vocabulary." The teacher stated, "It is a real courage to make sure that we spoke in a very normal way and that students were encouraged to understand that normal speaking patterns so they wouldn't be overwhelmed on street." Nevertheless, the teacher found that she often used

that "artificial way of speaking" in class because she thought that it was beneficial to use a mixture of normal speech and speech that was geared down if it helped the students understand.

The authentic materials implemented in this classroom were audio-taped mini-lectures. According to the teacher, these mini-lectures were authentic in a sense that, "they represent the way a real lecturer will talk to real class." The teacher maintained it was not necessarily important, for ESL instruction, to use a tape recording of an actual lecture as long as the mini-lectures were delivered, at normal speaking rate, in such a way that they realistically reflected what someone would say in a real college classroom.

The teacher believed that it was important for students to be able to go some place and understand a native speaker; as a result, she had planned a few field trips in addition to the use of recorded mini-lectures in the classroom. Nevertheless, the teacher asserted that ESL students had better not experience a lot of authentic listening activities right away. The teacher felt it was important for the students to "hear a native speaker and understand that person, and feel gratified that they understood." According to the teacher, "we have to bring people along slowly . . . it gives them self-confidence that they need to tackle more difficult situations."

The teacher, in order to help the listening process, generally spent a lot of time on the pre-listening activities either giving a lot of cues or allowing the students to read what they were going to hear. However, the teacher maintained that she would have spent less time on the pre-listening phase, before having the students listen to the mini-lecture, if the students "had been a real advanced group." To the teacher's belief, an advanced preparation such as a discussion about the subject was the most important thing in any listening task. Therefore, the teacher normally spent some time talking about the subject, before having students listen to a mini-lecture, in order to "elicit their background knowledge" and to "elicit vocabulary for concepts that they already have but they don't have the vocabulary for it."

Interviews

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Interviews represented a process of collecting information directly from the students (Galfo, 1983; Nisbet & Entwistle, 1970). There were two face-to-face interviews with the students in this study. The first interview was conducted at the beginning of the research study. The second interview was administered at the end of the semester. After completing the two interviews with the students, the researcher conducted an interview with the teacher who taught the class in High Intermediate Academic Listening and Vocabulary Development at the language institute.

Interviews with Students

First interview. The first interview was conducted to obtain information about the students' educational background in the English language, their English-language listening experiences, their attitudes toward the language, and their demographic background. The following questions were used during the first interview:

1. How long had you studied English before you came to this country?

2. Tell me about your English-language learning experiences in your country.

3. Tell me about the English-language listening experiences you had before you came to the United States.

4. Had you ever had a chance to communicate with native speakers of English before you came to this country? What is the nature of the communication with native speakers that you had?

5. How long have you been in the United States?

6. How often do you communicate with native English speakers in this country?

7. Please describe your feeling when you first arrived in a predominantly English-speaking environment.

8. Tell me about your English-language learning experiences in the United States.

9. Tell me about the English-language listening experiences you have had in this country.

10. Describe a situation in which you are usually successful in understanding what people say to you.

11. What kinds of difficulty or problems do you have when you listen to American people?

12. What do you usually do when you don't understand what people are saying to you?

13. Describe your understanding when you watch television.

14. Describe your understanding when you listen to the radio.

15. What do you do to improve your listening ability?

16. Now that you have been in this country for a while, please describe your level of comfort in understanding what American people say to you.

17. Anything else? (after each question)

In addition to the above questions, each student was given a background questionnaire to confirm demographic data such as age, gender, mother tongue, and motives for learning the English language. Furthermore, the students were asked to give responses to a self-evaluation questionnaire regarding their second-language listening ability.

Second interview. The second interview with students was conducted during the last week of the five-week language program. The purpose of this interview was to elicit more information about the students' views on the implementation of authentic materials in listening-comprehension class, the learning strategies they used in the classroom, as well as their attitudes towards learning the language. The following questions were used to guide the final interview.

1. Now that you have been in this country for a while, please describe your level of comfort in understanding what American people say to you.

2. Describe your perceptions of using real language in ESL listening.

3. How do you feel about your listening ability in the ESL classroom?

4. How do you think that the listening practice you have had until now affect your listening outside the classroom?

5. What do you think ESL classroom listening should be like if it is to prepare the students for real-life listening situation?

6. What are the learning strategies that you use in learning the English language?

7. Anything else? (after each question)

After completing the above questions, the students were requested to answer the questionnaire regarding their listening comprehension in the English language.

Interview with Teacher

The teacher interview was conducted directly at the end of the five-week ESL program so that the researcher could obtain the teacher's perception of implementing aural authentic materials in a listening class as well as the teacher's opinion about the listening ability of each student in the class. The following questions were used during the teacher interview.

1. Please define the term "authentic language."

2. Please describe your perceptions of using aural authentic language in ESL listening.

3. What kinds of aural authentic materials do you use in the classroom?

4. What are the authentic materials you might want to implement in your class in addition to what you are using now?

5. What kinds of listening activities do you think ESL classrooms should use to prepare the students for real-life listening situation?

6. Please describe some of the listening strategies you tell your students.

7. Please describe some of the learning strategies you tell your students.

8. Please tell me about your students and their progress in listening comprehension.

Self-Evaluation Questionnaire

The self-evaluation questionnaire contained questions with reference to the students' ability in listening comprehension. The purpose of the questionnaire was to obtain the students' viewpoint about their competence in second-language listening comprehension. In order to determine the changes in students' listening ability, each student was requested to give responses to the self-evaluation questionnaire at both the beginning and the end of the language program. The form of the self-evaluation questionnaire was as follows.

Self-Evaluation Questionnaire

1. What percentage of a typical conversation with a native speaker do you understand (less than half, more than half, all of it)?

2. What percentage of a typical listening-comprehension exercise in class do you understand (less than half, more than half, all of it)?

3. Are you generally able to guess the meanings of what you hear?

On the basis of these questions, give yourself a rating on *listening* (check one):

- Doing just fine, about where I should be

- Not too bad, nothing to worry about

- Serious problems

Language Learning Strategy Questionnaire

In addition to the fundamental research question regarding the influences of aural authentic materials on ESL students' listening comprehension, the following research question involving the learning strategy use was also addressed.

What kinds of learning strategies are most frequently used by ESL students listening to aural authentic materials in the classroom?

Although the listening material was a significant variable affecting the students' comprehension, the role played by the learners themselves was also an important factor influencing the learning process and language performance. The above research question, therefore, was to focus on how the students learned. Since language learners employed a variety of learning strategies as they sought to understand and remember the target language, it was a further interest of this study to examine the learning strategies that these students used when they were exposed to authentic listening texts.

In addition to the self-evaluation questionnaire, the students were asked to give responses to a language learning strategy questionnaire during the second interview. The learning strategy questionnaire was distributed to identify the behaviors employed by the students when they listened to the target language. The language learning strategy questionnaire was derived from the Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990). This 10-item self-report instrument used a five-point Likert scale, ranging from very rarely true to almost always true, to assess the frequency the students used different techniques for English-language listening. The form of the language learning strategy questionnaire was as follows.

Language Learning Strategy Questionnaire

Please read each statement and answer in terms of how well the statement describes you. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. Give a response (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) that tells how true of you the statement is.

1. The statement is very rarely true.
2. The statement is true less than half the time.
3. The statement is true about half the time.
4. The statement is true more than half the time.
5. The statement is true almost always.

- I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
- I create a mental image of what I heard.
- I watch English language TV shows spoken in English.
- I listen to popular songs on the radio.
- I try not to translate word-for-word.
- To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
- I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
- I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
- If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.
- I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

Class Observation

In addition to interviews and questionnaires, class observation was also a mean by which data for the current study were collected. Class observations were conducted from the beginning through the end of the data collection schedules, for a total of 25 days. The purpose of class observation was for the researcher to notice the authentic materials implemented in the classroom and to closely watch the students' listening and learning behaviors with relation to the teacher's instruction.

During each two-hour class, the researcher was seated on one side of the classroom where she could observe, without interfering, the teaching and learning activities. The researcher systematically observed each student for a two-minute period, focusing on one student at a time and writing down everything that student did. Then, the researcher focused on the next student for two minutes. After having finished observing all the students for a round, the researcher took a rest for five minutes. Nevertheless, the researcher still kept an eye on the activities that were taking place in the classroom. Then

the researcher started another round using the same order of observation. All the notes on class observation were typed for the forthcoming analysis.

Data Collection

Interviews, questionnaires, and class observations were the means for collecting data for the current study. First interviews with students were planned to be carried out during the first week of the data collection schedules. However, the interviews had to be postponed for another week because two students were not available during the first week. The purpose of the first interview session was for the researcher to establish rapport with students and to gather background information about the students, such as their former English-language learning experiences and their preceding practice in English-language listening. In order to obtain the entire context of the interview and to eliminate note-taking during the conversation, the researcher requested permission to use a tape recorder during the first interview session. The interview ran for about one hour for each student.

Second interviews with students were conducted to obtain the students' perceptions and reflections on the use of aural authentic materials in an ESL classroom. The interview took about one hour for each student and was audio-taped. During this session, the researcher also asked the students to complete two questionnaires, one on the language learning strategy and the other on self-evaluation.

The purpose of videotaping the classroom was for the researcher to observe the whole class without missing activities that were going on in any part of the classroom. However, due to the fact that the presence of a video camera could intrude upon the teacher's instruction and the students' performance in the classroom, the director of the language institute was willing to grant the researcher permission to videotape only one two-hour class during the observation session.

The final session of the data collection schedules was for the researcher to interview the teacher who taught the class in High Intermediate Academic Listening and Vocabulary Development. The purpose of the interview was to obtain the teacher's

perception of implementing aural authentic materials in an ESL classroom. Additionally, the interview with the teacher allowed the researcher to gain the teacher's view about each student's progress in English-language listening ability. The interview took about an hour. Like the interviews with students, the teacher interview session was audio-taped.

Analysis of Data

After the data-collection procedures had been completed, all the audio-taped interviews were transcribed into typed manuscripts. The notes of the class observation were also typed. Then, the researcher noted the activities that were going on at each minute interval of the videotape of classroom instruction. All the transcribed manuscripts were coded, using codes and categories as presented in Appendix C, and examined according to the proposed fundamental research question:

What are the influences of aural authentic materials on the listening

comprehension in students of English as a second language?

and the secondary research questions:

1. What kinds of learning strategies are most frequently used by ESL students listening to aural authentic materials in the classroom?

2. What are the influences of aural authentic materials on ESL students' attitudes towards learning English?

Answers to these research questions were revealed primarily from both the first and the second interviews with the students. Other sources of the data, such as the teacher interview and the class-observation notes, were also used so that the researcher could obtain more data to broaden the information from the interviews with the students. Data from the self-evaluation questionnaire were used to report the students' self-perception of their ability to understand spoken English and to determine the students' improvement, based on their self-report, in the listening-comprehension ability. The language learning strategy questionnaire was used to report the kinds of learning

strategies that were most frequently used by ESL students. Table 3 presents how the data were analyzed in the current study.

Table 3   Analysis of Data

Research Questions	Sources of Data	Data Types
What are the influences of aural authentic materials on the listening comprehension in students of English as a second language?	(1) Interview1 with students	(1a) Key words from questions #7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 16
	(2) Interview2 with students	(2a) Key words from questions #1, 2, 3, 4
	(3) Interview with teacher	(3a) Key words from question #8
	(4) Class observation	(4a) Number of times students responded to teacher's questions and instructions
	(5) Self-evaluation questionnaire	(5a) Number of students for each answer
What kinds of learning strategies are most frequently used by ESL students listening to aural authentic materials in the classroom?	(1) Interview1 with students	(1a) Key words from questions #12, 15
	(2) Interview2 with students	(2a) Key words from question #6
	(3) Interview with teacher	(3a) Key words from questions #6, 7
	(4) Class observation	(4a) Frequency count of different learning strategies
	(5) Language learning strategy questionnaire	(5a) Number of responses along scale points of each strategy
What are the influences of aural authentic materials on ESL students' attitudes towards learning English?	(1) Interview with students	(1a) Key words

Validity and Reliability

Validity is a measure of the degree to which the instrument is measuring what it is intended to measure. Reliability, on the other hand, is a measure of the degree to which the same analysis procedure is likely to give consistent results (Gay, 1996). The worksheets of validity and reliability agreement for the current study are presented in Appendix D.

To establish face validity, 100 isolated unambiguous events of classroom behaviors, derived from transcripts of class videotaping (see Appendix E), were coded once at the beginning and once at the end of the data coding process. Frequency count of coded events for each category of classroom behaviors was compared between that obtained from the first coding and that from the second coding. Simple percentage agreement of 98% was found between the two codings.

The transcript of 100 isolated unambiguous events of classroom behaviors, from the class videotaping, was also submitted to a criterion observer for coding; this is to establish construct validity between the researcher and coding categories. The criterion observer in this study was a Ph.D. candidate, in Education and Human Resource Development at the George Washington University, who used to work as a research assistant and had experience in classroom observation. The researcher and the criterion observer went over the coded data on which they did not agree. While the researcher considered the event, students looked at board when the teacher told them to look at what she wrote on board, as students following teacher's instruction, the criterion observer coded the event as students looking at board when teacher talking about what she wrote. The event in which students reading material as teacher talking was coded by the researcher as students not paying attention; the criterion observer, however, could not decide if the event should be categorized as paying attention or not paying attention as listening. Percent agreement between the researcher's and the criterion observer's coded data was 96%.

To demonstrate observer reliability, the researcher utilized the relationship between codings of class observation (N = 2,017) and class videotaping (N = 838). The correlation coefficient was .94. To establish interrater reliability, the researcher coded events from three 10-minute segments of the videotaped session (see Appendix F) and submitted a transcript to the criterion observer for verification of the accuracy in coding. Agreement of 90% was found between researcher's and criterion observer's coded data. Disagreement in codings was found in different categories; for instance, classroom events in which students looking at written material as teacher was talking were generally favored by the criterion observer as students not paying attention; events in which students nodding head when teacher asking a question was favored by the researcher as students answering questions.

As a large number of classroom events are coded over a period of time, a coder has a tendency to change selections from one code to another. To control for observer drift, the researcher coded a segment of videotaped session once at the beginning of the data coding process and once at the end of the process. Percentages were calculated for the coded data, for each category; simple percent agreement along each category, between the first coding and the second coding, was then figured. Intraobserver reliability was established with agreement of 96% between the two codings.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter reports the findings that were obtained from an examination of the data collected in this study. Summary of the findings and detailed description of results are discussed.

<u>Summary of the Study</u>

The primary research question addressed in the study was:

> What are the influences of aural authentic materials on
> the listening comprehension in students of English
> as a second language?

The secondary research questions asked in the study were:

1. What kinds of learning strategies are most frequently used by ESL students listening to aural authentic materials in the classroom?

2. What are the influences of aural authentic materials on ESL students' attitudes towards learning English?

The primary objective of the study was to examine the influences of aural authentic materials on the listening comprehension in ESL students. The secondary objectives were to consider the learning strategies used by ESL students listening to authentic texts in the classroom, and to determine the influences of aural authentic materials on ESL students' attitudes towards learning the language.

The study consisted of seven students who attended the High Intermediate Academic Listening and Vocabulary Development class at a language institute. In this study, a total of fifteen interviews, one with the teacher and two with each participating student, were audio-recorded. Both first and second interviews with the students were conducted in the target language, English. In addition to the interviews, class activities had been observed for five weeks and one class session was videotaped.

Results of the Study

The analysis of data obtained from varying sources, including interviews with teacher and students, self-evaluation questionnaire, and class observation, revealed that the use of authentic materials in the ESL classroom helped increase students' comfort level and self-confidence to listen to the target language. The students' listening comprehension appeared to have improved after having exposed to aural authentic materials in the classroom. The analysis of data obtained from learning strategy questionnaire, interviews with students, and class observation revealed that the learning strategies ESL students frequently used were paying attention when someone was speaking English, and asking the other person to say again if they did not understand something. The study also revealed that implementing authentic materials in ESL-listening class heightened the students' attitudes towards language learning. A detailed description of the findings will be presented in the following section.

Results for Fundamental Research Question: Influences of Aural Authentic Materials

The following section describes the findings related to the fundamental research question concerning the influences of aural authentic materials on listening comprehension in ESL students. The results were derived from varying sources of data: the interviews with teacher and students, the class observation, and the self-evaluation questionnaire.

Results from the interviews with students. The purpose of the interviews with students was to obtain information about the students' experiences in English-language listening, both in their home country and in the United States. The interviews were especially geared towards the students' experiences with aural authentic materials.

Of all 7 students, Akiko was the only one who felt relaxed when she first arrived in an English-speaking country; Akiko mentioned being delighted when she understood a little of what native speakers said. Other 6 students (86%) felt uncomfortable and frustrated; 5 out of 6 students (83%) then became relatively comfortable in a totally new environment, after having spent some time adjusting themselves; Choi, however, still felt a little uncomfortable when she was surrounded with the English language.

In the ESL classroom, the students also needed to adjust themselves to English spoken by the teacher. All 7 students (100%) found themselves understanding the teacher's English without much difficulty. By the end of the language program, 6 out of 7 students (86%), except Choi, found themselves understanding most of what the teacher said. Following is the students' response involving their comprehension of the teacher's skeaking.

Akiko: "Uh, teacher, I can understand the teacher's speech . . . mostly."

Cheng: "Yeah, so I can understand [the teacher] and I-I felt it easy . . . I think 100%."

Choi: "Uh, last semester, uh, is uh than-than now, now-now understand than last semester . . . last semester is very fast-faster and, uh, the word-the word is difficult-difficult, uh, I-I don't understand . . . [this semester] sometimes understand, sometimes uh no."

Enrique: "At the first time I understand 30%-35%, at the first time. Now I understand 95%-90%."

Kim: "Yeah, her-her say the maybe uh if we she say something and then I-I understand 9-90% because she's-she's comfortable-comfortable say and then sometimes she use the change, they use change the word that is more easy-more easier."

Sonya: "Now yes, now yes. But last-last course I don't understand because my vocabulary, I think. . . . I unders- don't understand 100%, no-no, but uh 80%."

Yuki: "Yeah yeah, uh, I usually understand what he-what she say."

        Listening to the recorded mini-lectures, all 7 students somewhat understood what they heard. Nevertheless, 4 out of 7 students (57%): Akiko, Choi, Kim, and Yuki, generally had difficulty understanding the mini-lectures because of the lecturers' rapid rate of speech and use of unfamiliar vocabulary items. The students, however, stated comprehending more content after they repeatedly listened to the same mini-lectures. The students' viewpoints about their listening ability of the mini-lectures are as follows.

Akiko: "They are faster for me. . . . It is little uh to me, um-um it is a little time to
        understand the lecture and my class. . . . I can't understand, but uh I study uh
        script-with script, after that I-I under- I understand uh 60-uh 50 or 60% . . . after
        reading I can understand."
Cheng: "I can understand the, yeah, at first time and not every word . . . just-just the main
        idea. Uh, the third I think I can understand everything."
Choi: "Uh-uh a little-a little. Uh, tape lecture is faster. . . . I like to listening again and
        again . . . first I-I-I don't understand. Uh, listening second and third listening-
        listening, I hearing a little-a little easy."
Enrique: "I understand the lectures, yeah. It's easy-easy for me."
Kim: "Uh, half and half, because the lecture is very-very fast and then, and vocabulary
        sometimes very difficult vocabulary. . . . Sometimes I-I can't understand."
Sonya: "Surprise for me because I-I understand the text this class maybe because the use
        of the plain language and the it's slowly."
Yuki: "They speak very fast . . . I can understand 50% . . . I can understand what he said
        but I not clear. Uh-uh, I can't I can understand uh his subject and uh his main-
        main ideas, but I can't understand uh details. So I have to listen hard-hard."

        Residing in the country where English is predominantly used, the students were equipped with plenty of opportunities to encounter the English language generated by and for native speakers. However, the results from the interviews revealed that those students

who were in this country with any family member, Cheng, Choi, Enrique, and Sonya, normally spent most of their time, outside the language class, staying home and using native language. Akiko, Cheng, Choi, and Sonya went out for shopping from time to time; each of these students always went out with her husband and, therefore, generally relied on her husband's English-language skills when they communicated with native English speakers. Those students who did not have a family member living with them in the United States pointed out having occasions to interact with native speakers of the target language. Yuki mentioned having some American friends with whom she had conversations a few times a week. Kim asserted that he had a friend who had been educated in the United States and whose English was similar to that of a native speaker; they normally used English in communicating with each other.

Table 4 shows the outcomes from the interviews with students. The frequency counts of different key words were noted. The results suggested that 6 out of 7 students (86%) were generally successful in understanding the message if native speakers spoke slowly; 4 out of 7 students (57%) understood if people used comprehensible words; and 3 out of 7 students (43%) understood if native people pronounced clearly. On the contrary, 6 out of 7 students (86%) had difficulty understanding when native speakers of the target language spoke rapidly; 5 out of 7 students (71%) had difficulty when people used slang or complicated words.

Table 4   Students' Understanding of Authentic Language

Interview Questions	Key Words	N
Describe a situation in which you are usually successful in understanding what people say to you?	- Speak slowly - Use easy, simple words - Speak clearly	6 4 3
What kinds of difficulty or problems do you have when you listen to American people?	- Speak quickly - Vocabulary words / slang	6 5
Describe your understanding when you watch television.	- Captions help understanding - Pictures help understanding	5 3
Describe your understanding when you listen to the radio.	- Not listen to radio - Listen to radio -- Only songs and music -- Understand a little; sometimes not understand -- Need more attention than watching television	2 5

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All 7 students (100%) watched television at home. The students reported that they somewhat understood what they heard and saw on television. The results revealed that 3 out of 7 students (43%) made use of seeing pictures and that 5 out of 7 students (71%) generally read captions to facilitate their understanding of television shows. Akiko, Choi, and Yuki asserted that they hardly understood what they watched on television when captions were not provided. Nevertheless, Akiko and Yuki attempted not to concentrate themselves on reading captions. Choi, however, mentioned that she principally read the available captions. Five students (71%) reported listening to radio but hardly understanding what they heard. Since the radio required a lot of attention to extract meanings of the spoken words, the students normally listened to only songs and music on the radio. The students felt more comfortable with watching television than with listening to radio.

Toward the end of the semester, the teacher offered an arrangement for students to attend an academic class on campus. The second interview then revealed the students' experience with a real lecture in a real classroom. Five out of seven students (71%) went to a class of their interest while two others did not. Choi did not attend an academic class because she was pregnant and had no intention to take an academic program during her stay in the United States. Enrique, in spite of his plan to attend a college in the near future, would rather practice skills in speaking than listening. Following is the students' notions of their exposure to authentic lectures in an authentic academic class.

Akiko: "It's easy to me because I can't, perhaps I can't understand English, but I know everything about computer. . . . His English is very clear, and uh not fast but not slowly. . . . The lecture is very simple . . . uh many difficult terms the words."

Cheng: "I can understand 70-7-70 to 80%, and I can un-, I can listen uh for every word clearly, but uh some word I can- I haven't learned before. . . . She give us a copy, yeah, and you don't write and write anything, just write some words. . . . And it closes um this um knowledge I learned before."

Kim: "When I-when I audit the audit-audit dit des-dit des my major digital design, this is so sometimes I don't I can't understand the professor say. But sometimes he say

about the some im- important thing and then is I understand something because just I heard about I match about my knowledge base and then is like match, and then is sometimes I understand. . . . First day is very difficult for me; the second day is more comfortable; third day is more comfortable. Maybe different-different pronunciation and then is he say something but I can't, I try to but sometimes I can't understand something. . . . This class is difficult for me."

Sonya: "I understand maybe 30 [%], yes. But she have uh notes; I xerox these notes I accom- accompany the explanation. . . . Fast, the vocabulary is specific, yeah, specific about the compute- computer. . . . At first they're bad; second, yes, a little [understand]. . . . Uh, sometimes I didn't [take notes], one or two words about explanation don't have in the transparencies."

Yuki: "I can understand uh what uh-uh the professor what the professor said, but I can't note. But uh-but uh, he-he gave me from uh from piece of paper; uh, but letter about lecture uh so, and it helped me. . . . It is slowly and it very loud uh loud, slowly . . . [I can understand] almost everything . . . his English is very uh easy-easy and I can't, I can understand."

Although the students felt uncomfortable and had difficulty understanding the instructor's English on the first day that they went to an academic class, the students became more relaxed afterwards. Akiko, Cheng, and Yuki found that they understood the lectures rather well; these students went to a class in computer, clothing and textiles, and television production as they already had background knowledge in mathematics and computer, fashion designing, and television production respectively. The familiarity with the course content facilitated the students' understanding of the lectures. With a background in engineering, Kim went to an engineering class and found himself understanding the lectures from time to time. Sonya went to a computer class, though she had a background in biochemistry; her comprehension of academic lectures was rather limited because of her lack of background knowledge and the instructor's rapid rate of utterance. All 5 students had experienced the same problem in the academic class, that is, the unfamiliarity with vocabulary items particularly related to specific fields of study.

By the end of the ESL class, the students had been in the United States for a varying length of time: one and a half months (1 out of 7 students), two months (2 out of 7 students), five months (3 out of 7 students), and nine months (1 out of 7 students). Having resided in the United States and experienced some aural authentic materials in the classroom, the students found themselves feeling more comfortable, than the time they arrived in the country, when they met and heard native speakers of the target language. Choi, however, mentioned still feeling a little uncomfortable when she encountered English outside the classroom setting. The results from the interviews also revealed that 6 out of 7 students (86%) found the listening practice they had in class assisted their listening outside the classroom by lessening the nervousness and heightening the self-confidence. Akiko was the only student who did not realize any changes in the level of comfort or the assistance of classroom listening practice in her listening ability outside classroom setting. The students' viewpoints about the influences of the listening practice in class on their listening ability are the following:

Akiko: "Still difficult, no different . . . my ability is a little. I don't feel comfortable. . . . Almost I can't understand. But mostly I can't if I-I listen two times, I can't mostly; I can't understand . . . if they-they speak otherwise easy words, I can understand."

Cheng: "I think it improve . . . because I can understand more now, yeah . . . and help me um not very nervous when I go outside. Yeah, and because um when I speak more and I, uh yeah, I can-I can understand more, and I feel comfort, and I feel confident. Yeah, and I can--sometimes when you nervous you cannot almost cannot hear anything."

Choi: "Uh, a little-a little uncomfortable. . . . Uh, more comfortable, but I try to English . . . I-I half understand-half understand. . . . Uh, I understand, uh help-uh help watch television, and today is I-I understand I can understand."

Enrique: "I used to understand before getting here. After being here for a while, I'm being exposed to English conversation, I understand better. Yeah, some more is better. . . . Now no problem because I understand better."

Kim: "If I go to the outside and then some-somebody say, it's sometimes it's I can understand; a little more improve, I think. It's more comfortable because some first time I-I cannot catch many sentence. So right now is more comfortable because I can catch. It's more-more many sentence. So it's I think I heard about many-many sentence, and then is uh I think-I think-I think it's more comfortable and then and my abili- listening ability is more improve, I think."

Sonya: "It help [listening] ability because the here I am training-I'm training . . . I-I feel better. It is help but [in class] I-I listen better than outside, yes. . . . I need some times about understanding better. Because the teacher the computer course, I'm-I'm-I'm I need uh one week about understanding better. But I know I better understanding English because October or November I go to the church class and I need three months about understand the teacher."

Yuki: "Yes, uh-uh-uh, I feel my-my English better than the first. . . . I can understand the main, uh the main idea. . . . Uh, the listening class help me how to-how to listen . . . get used to listen American people-American people. Uh, at first I'm afraid to talk because I can't listening. But, uh, I take listening class and everyday I listen material . . . uh, now I got used to listen-I got used to listen-I got used to listening uh native American."

Surrounded with the target language, the students recognized the difference between English they heard in class and that they experienced in the real world. According to the students, the language they encountered outside classroom was normally spoken rather rapidly, generally had regional ways of pronouncing, and sometimes contained slang words and ungrammatical features. The students' notions of English spoken by native speakers in the community were as follows.

Akiko: "If-if he and she speaks slowly, I can understand. But they-they speak fast, I can't understand."

Cheng: "Sometimes they use the informal word we- that I never learned, for example, the

teens. Yeah, and many other words that never learned in the books before. This

will just the Americans like to use them, yeah."

Choi: "Uh yes, fast-fast and difficult words . . . outside people is fast-faster and uh cor-

correct-correcting, not cor- not correcting-not correct. Ah, uh tone-tone-tone uh

speaking tone is difficult."

Enrique: "They very speak quickly."

Kim: "I feel a little bit difficult because the, uh like, teacher the way she teach us is more

slowly and then it's more general. . . . It's like some kind of uh culture of them,

and very difficult for me. . . . Pronunciation is sometimes very some-some people

is different. . . . Very fast, sometimes I understand, but sometimes I don't

understand. . . . Because we-we heard about everyday is [teacher], right? . . .

adapted to, yeah, to speaking about by [teacher]; but another say, and then it's

difficult for me, but it's try to another-another-another pronunciation."

Sonya: "The different about the English the- here the English speaking very well, but in

the supermarket and the mall especially, the many- there are many confused . . .

very fast. Sometimes they are speaking different the pronunciation, maybe."

Yuki: "Uh, the some, uh, native American people use uh slang. Yeah, but I-I uh I didn't

learn slang. I just uh infor- uh, formal English. But I-I want to learn slang,

informal-informal English."

Results from the interview with teacher. The fundamental purpose of the

interview with teacher was to obtain information, from the teacher's observations, about

the students' English-language listening ability. While 3 out of 7 students were

newcomers, the teacher had the others as former students from previous semester. On the

basis of students' class attendance (see Appendix G), their ability to respond in class,

together with their approach to native speakers, the teacher perceived that 4 out of 7

students (57%): Cheng, Enrique, Sonya, and Yuki, had clearly made a progress in their

English-listening ability. Three other students whose listening progress was not

obviously noticed by the teacher were: Akiko, who came after the class had already

started; Choi and Kim, who were repeatedly absent from the language class. Evidently, these three students had less time with classroom listening experiences than the rest of students in the same class.

The teacher's viewpoints about individual student's improvement in listening-comprehension ability are the following:

"Well, *Enrique*, his progress is pretty clear. I'm not sure how much he understood before, he just couldn't respond. . . . I suspect he understands more now, but particularly his, that affective filter has gone down. He was so nervous and uptight . . ."

"Um, *Cheng* had a lot of knowledge, uh, upstairs, uh, that could really come out and we hadn't thought about placing her in advanced level class. . . . So, she was able to make real rapid progress. Um, and that's, you know, usually what you see particularly in Asian students who come in with high TOEFL scores and no listening skills."

"*Yuki* was a real good student . . . her own desire to acquire knowledge has pretty much guided her in everything she does. So, she's a more natural and, therefore, more successful learner than some other students who felt pressure to succeed on test all their lives and have maybe lost touch with that natural innate desire to learn. Um, so she-she, uh, she does very well in an authentic situation. She's not afraid to put herself on the line."

"Um, *Sonya* understands a lot more than she did last semester. She just has so many production problems; her speech is still almost incomprehensible, and I think it's partially because of her age . . . she has so many, uh, so many Portuguese ways of-of speaking that it's really hard to understand."

"*Akiko* came in at the end and, I think, she's still feeling overwhelmed . . . she's gonna need a few more weeks to relax and get comfortable as always. Um, and so, I can't really guess what her progress has been."

"*Choi*, um, she's pretty typical Korean lady, I believe. You know, she wants to appear docile and submissive . . . um, she simple hasn't had enough exposure to English to make progress like Yuki, for example. She speaks English two hours a day and

sometimes not everyday in the week . . . she hasn't much, uh, so many fewer opportunities than everybody else to work on the skills."

"Um, I think *Kim* is worried about Korea, and he's worried about his own future. . . . He's got a lot of emotional things keeping him from coming to class and being consistent. And his work habits, he generally doesn't prepare his lessons."

Results from the class observation. The purpose of class observation was to obtain information about the natures and the proportions of aural authentic input that was provided in the ESL classroom. The results from 5-week class observation revealed that, of the 25-day language program, 85% of the total class hours delivered English spoken by native speakers of the language: 55% through the teacher, 10% through mini-lecture tapes, 8% through guest speakers, 8% through people met on field trips, and 4% through motion pictures. The remaining 15% of the entire class time was spent on other activities including working on exercises, listening to classmates reading, and listening to classmates answering questions.

The analyzed transcripts of five-week class observation also revealed a variation of classroom behaviors indicating the students' listening and understanding of the target language. Classroom behaviors were coded and grouped into major categories: following instructions, answering questions, not answering questions / not following instructions, nodding or shaking head as listening, and smiling and/or laughing as listening.

The first category, following instructions, consisted of classroom events in which the students performed to demonstrate their understanding of the teacher's directions, such as introducing themselves to guest speakers, pronouncing vocabulary after the teacher, and taking notes while listening to the mini-lectures. The second category included events that the students verbally, with a single word, phrase or sentence, or non-verbally, with a head nodding or a head shaking, answered the teacher's questions. Another category contained the circumstances that the students did not accurately respond to the teacher's questions or directions; for instance, the students repeated the definition given when the teacher asked for a word for that definition. The next category included

events that the students indicated an understanding of the message by nodding, shaking head, or using paralinguistic cues such as "uh huh," and "yeah." The last category consisted of occurrences that the students smiled or laughed to signify their listening and understanding of the heard message. Using transcripts of the class observation, frequency counts of coded events related to each category were totalled. The outcomes are presented in Table 5.

Table 5   **Results from Class Observation**

Categories	N	Percentages
Followed instructions	209	26
Answered questions	304	38
Not answered question / not followed instructions	45	6
Nodded / shook head as listening	148	19
Smiled / laughed as listening	88	11
Total	*794*	*100*

The results from class observation indicated that the students generally displayed an acknowledgment, in a way or another, while they were listening to the teacher. Most of the time, the students nodded head or precisely said an answer when the teacher asked a question. When they were given an instruction to do certain thing, the students normally responded accurately. Nevertheless, the students sometimes kept quiet and did not respond to what the teacher said. While they were listening, the students often nodded their head. Occasionally, the students smiled or laughed when they heard what the teacher said. The overall result of class observation is discussed in Appendix H.

Results from the self-evaluation questionnaire. The purpose of self-evaluation questionnaire in Appendix I was to obtain individual student's perception of his/her listening-comprehension ability. To determine the progress in the students' listening ability, as a consequence of implementing authentic materials in the ESL class over a semester period, the questionnaire was administered at both the beginning and the ending of the language program. Table 6 presents the students' responses on the self-evaluation questionnaire obtained at the beginning of the study comparing to those received at the completion of the semester. The two sets of responses obtained from each student were compared; the outcomes then revealed the student's improvement in comprehending the English language. Figure 2 and Figure 3 demonstrate the individual students' progress in understanding the target language heard inside and outside ESL class respectively.

Based on the results from students' self-evaluation reports on English-language listening comprehension, both inside and outside classroom, the current study was composed of three major groups of students. The first group was consisted of two students: Akiko and Choi, whose listening comprehension had not progressed in either setting. The second group was consisted of only one student, Kim, whose comprehension had improved in listening to native speakers of English, both inside and outside ESL class. The other group was consisted of the students whose comprehension had progressed only in classroom listening practice: Enrique, Sonya, and Yuki, and whose comprehension had progressed only in listening to native speakers outside class: Cheng.

Table 6   Students' Responses on Self-Evaluation Questionnaire

Questions	Answers	Number of Students	
		Start	**End**
What percentage of a typical conversation with a native speaker do you understand?	Less than half	5	4
	Half	0	1
	More than half	2	1
	All of it	0	1
What percentage of a typical listening-comprehension exercise in class do you understand?	Less than half	5	2
	Half	1	0
	More than half	1	5
	All of it	0	0
Are you generally able to guess the meanings of what you hear?	Yes	5	6
	No	2	1
On the basis of these questions, give yourself a rating on listening:	Doing just fine	0	0
	Not too bad	5	5
	Serious problems	2	2
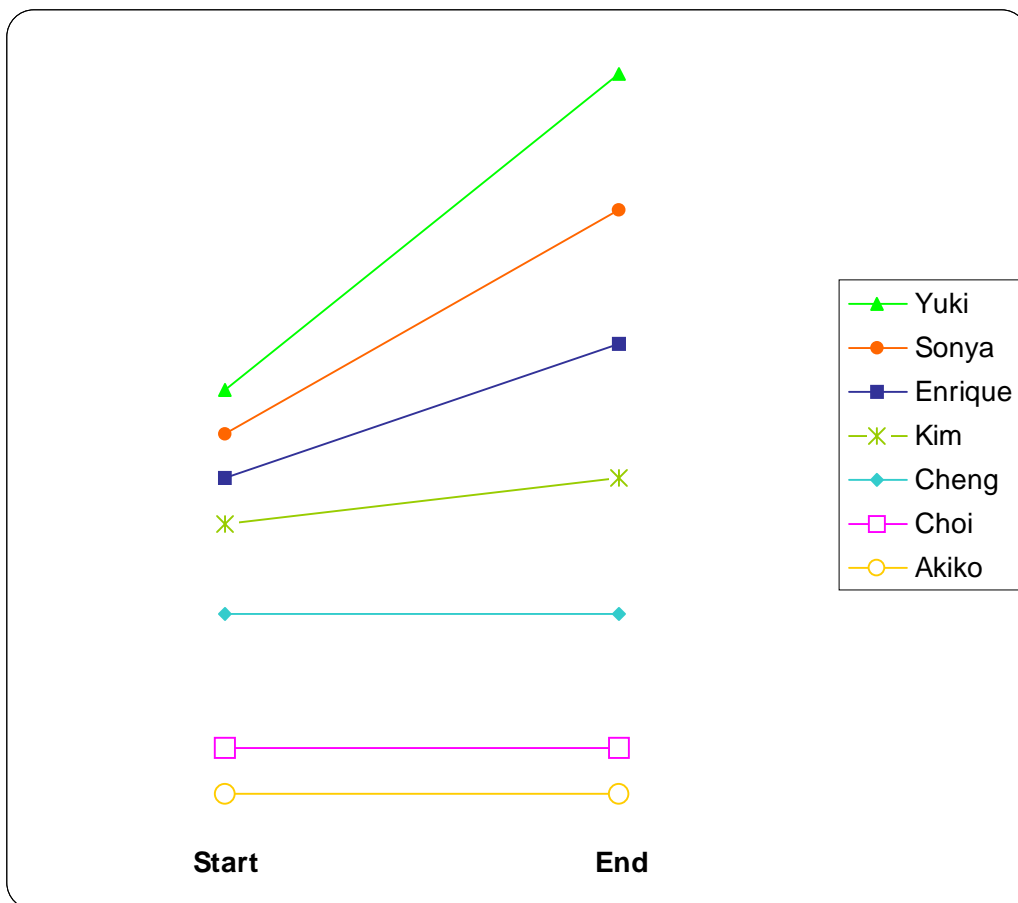
Figure 2   Line chart of students' progress in listening inside class
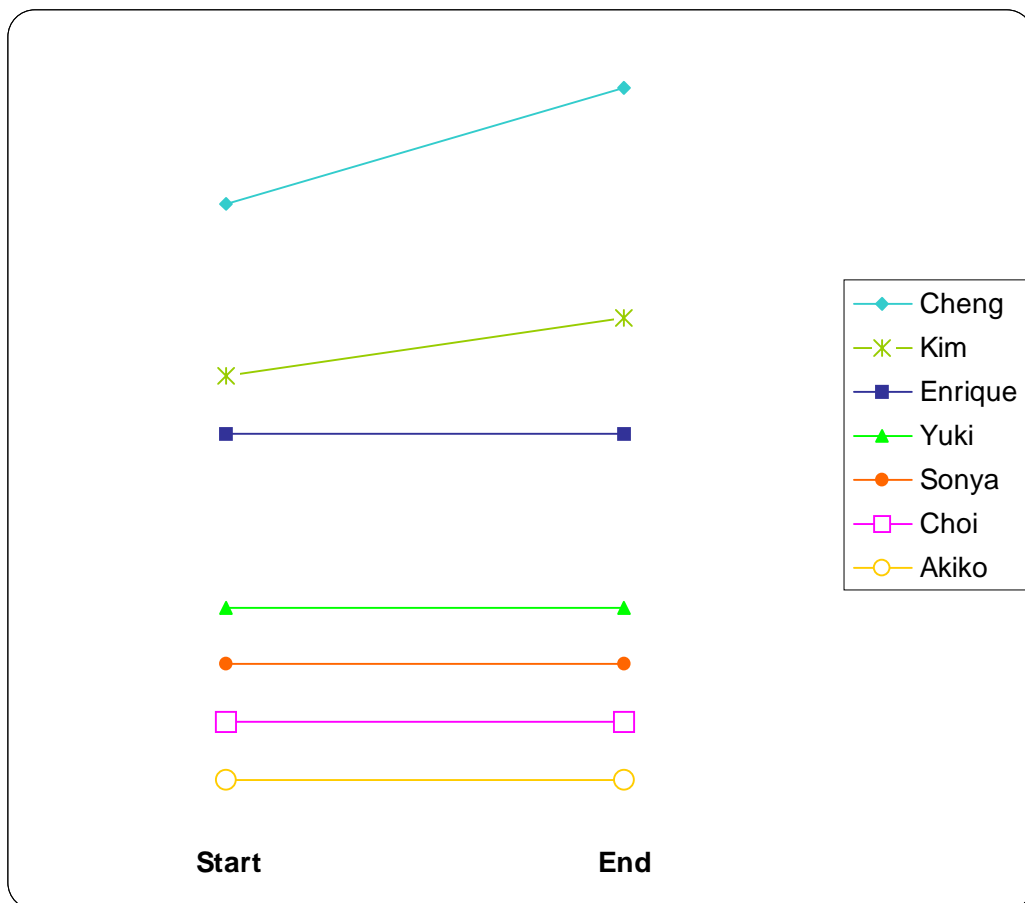
Figure 3   **Line chart of students' progress in listening outside class**

Summary of Findings Related to the Influences of Aural Authentic Materials

Based on the outcomes of the interviews, the class observation, and the self-evaluation questionnaire, it can be summarized that the implementation of aural authentic materials in the ESL classroom had some influences on listening ability in ESL students. The exposure to aural authentic language helped increase the students' level of comfort in listening to native speakers of the target language. Implementing authentic materials in class also helped increase students' self-confidence to listen to the target language spoken by native speakers of the language. Since the students had limited language skills, they normally avoided a conversation with a native speaker, especially when they first arrived in the United States. An ESL classroom, therefore, was a place where the students primarily practiced the language skills, and concurrently built comfort and self-confidence. When they had confidence in themselves and their language ability, the students tended to expose themselves and use the target language with native speakers.

It can also be summarized that the students' listening comprehension appeared to have improved after they had experienced authentic language and authentic materials in the ESL classroom. Nevertheless, the students' progress in listening comprehension was more evident in their ability to understand the language in a structured environment of the classroom than that occurred in a natural setting outside class. Having exposed to English language spoken by various groups of native speakers, the students experienced difficulty in understanding according to certain features of authentic language, including pace, accent, dialects, and formality.

Results for Secondary Research Question #1: Learning Strategy Use

The following section presents the findings related to the secondary research question involving the learning strategies used by ESL students listening to aural authentic language.

Results from the interviews with students. The purpose of the interviews with students was to obtain information about the strategies that the students used to facilitate their English listening and understanding. Table 7 presents the outcomes of the interviews regarding the strategies used by the ESL students listening to English spoken by native speakers. When they did not understand what people were saying, the students generally asked the others to repeat what they just said or to speak more slowly. Sometimes, the students asked for the definition or spelling of an unknown word. Following is what the students normally said when they were unable to catch what native speakers said to them.

Akiko: "Pardon," "Speak more slowly."

Cheng: "Would you please say again?"

Choi: "Again, please."

Enrique: "Not too fast," "I'm not following you," "I'm sorry, I don't understand you."

Kim: "Excuse me, please. I couldn't catch your speak," "Excuse me, what do you say?"

Sonya: "Repeat, please."

Yuki: "Please repeat," "Speak again," "How to say?"

Table 7   Interviews with Students on Learning Strategy Use

Interview Questions	Key Words	N
What do you usually do when you don't understand what people are saying to you?	- Ask people to say again - Ask people to slow down - Ask people to give meaning of word - Ask people to spell word - Guess	6 3 3 2 1
What do you do to improve your listening ability?	- Watch television	7
What are the learning strategies that you use in learning the English language?	- Use dictionary - Guess what people will say next - Translate to native language when listening to English - Not translate between English and native language	5 2 2 2

The results from the interviews showed that all seven students spent time watching television every day so that they practiced listening to the target language. The interviews also revealed some learning strategies that the students used in learning English. Most students mentioned using a dictionary to consult meanings when they encountered an unfamiliar word. Kim and Yuki usually tried to guess what the other person would say next. Some students, Choi and Kim, generally thought in their own native language when they listened to the target language. Some other students, Cheng and Enrique, on the other hand, tried not to translate between their first language and the second language they were learning. The students' remarks on the strategies that they applied in learning the English language are the following:

Akiko: "I had to study by myself, watching TV, listening radio, uh the tapes."

Cheng: "I listen to the verb and the nouns more carefully. . . . First I, uh, use English-English dictionary; and sometimes the explanation I'm very confused, so I learn from the Chinese, English-Chinese dictionary . . . to take notes in class."

Choi: "[I think in] Korean language [when listening]."

Enrique: "I try to hear and think in English so I can answer . . . I speak [English] in my home . . . I use the dictionary [in the classroom], watching TV . . . I don't understand words, I ask my father or other what is that mean."

Kim: "I don't understand, just guess . . . if I don't understand something, but it's like uh, it's like some, I think it's, I-I may, maybe if I-if I felt it's not comfortable or some difficult meaning, and then is I pay attention-I pay attention. But it's like easy conversation, it's not pay attention; this is just like 'How do you do,' 'Fine, good' like this-this. . . . I don't want to dictionary, but sometimes it's-sometimes it's I want because exactly, I want to exactly know meaning . . . sometimes I use the dictionary, but I cannot bring the dictionary, so just guess-just guess; and then is I ask about something somebody. I ask about somebody and then is maybe they-they say about similar. . . . Just I heard about, I match about my knowledge base."

Sonya: "Uh, I use dictionary. I-I use my husband and my kids."

Yuki: "Uh, when I was uh, when I watch the television, I use um English-Japanese . . .
but uh, when I uh, when I take class, I use English-English dictionary. I, uh if I
don't have dictionary, I ask what mean. . . . I expect what you say."

Results from the interview with teacher. The interview with teacher revealed
information about the learning strategies that she emphasized in the language class. As
opposed to the students' belief about the necessity of hearing and understanding every
single word, the teacher attempted to emphasize the importance of getting general ideas
and being able to answer general questions. Additionally, the teacher always instructed
the students to expect what they were about to hear while they were listening. Table 8
presents the findings from the interview with teacher regarding language learning
strategies that the teacher told the students in her Academic Listening and Vocabulary
Development class.

Table 8   Interview with Teacher on Language Learning Strategies

Interview Questions	Key Words
Please describe some of the listening strategies you tell your students.	- The need to listen globally - The purpose to get general ideas, not the specifics
Please describe some of the learning strategies you tell your students.	- Prediction - The ability to answer a general question

Results from the class observation. The purpose of the class observation was to obtain information on the learning strategies used by ESL students listening to aural authentic materials in the classroom. Frequency counts of leading learning strategies were totalled, using the transcripts of the class observation. The findings, presented in Table 9, indicated that the students normally paid attention when someone was speaking, either by reading a written text along or looking at the speaker. The students sometimes took notes or wrote down something as they listened to the teacher. However, what the students had on their notes was basically a copy of what the teacher wrote on the board. Periodically, the students consulted the meaning of unfamiliar words in a dictionary. Occasionally, the students asked questions when they were not certain about the material. Additional learning strategies used by the students were underlining the printed material as listening to the mini-lectures and repeating words that the teacher just said.

Table 9   Class Observation on Learning Strategy Use

Categories	N	Percentages
Paid attention as listening to speaker	753	72
Took notes or wrote down answers	103	10
Used dictionary to check meanings	97	9
Asked questions about material	47	5
Underlined materials	18	2
Repeated words after teacher	17	2
Total	*1,035*	*100*

Results from the learning strategy questionnaire. The purpose of the learning strategy questionnaire in Appendix J was to obtain information on the frequency that the students used different techniques for English listening and language learning. Table 10 presents the overall findings of the students' responses to the learning strategy questionnaire. The analysis of the questionnaire revealed that the students in this study always paid attention when someone was speaking the target language. Other learning strategies that the students frequently used were: guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words, watching television programs spoken in the target language, and asking the other person to repeat or slow down if they did not understand something. The results from the learning strategy questionnaire also revealed the strategies that were rarely used by the students. One learning strategy that was infrequently used by the students in this study was listening to the radio, even though they watched television on a regular basis. The other learning strategy that the students infrequently used in their language learning was trying not to translate word-for-word. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the mean strategy use across the students is presented in Appendix K.

Summary of Findings Related to the Learning Strategy Use

From the outcomes of the class observation, it can be summarized that the ESL students used several learning strategies when they listened to aural authentic language in the classroom. The learning strategy most frequently used was paying attention when someone was speaking. Other learning strategies that the students used in listening to the English language were taking notes, asking questions about the material, and using a dictionary to look up the meanings of unfamiliar words.

The findings from the interviews with students and learning strategy questionnaire revealed that, in addition to paying attention when someone was speaking, the students normally asked the other person to either say again or slow down when they did not understand something. Watching television was the most popular strategy for the students to practice the second-language listening skills. On the contrary, listening to radio was the strategy infrequently used by these ESL students.

Table 10   Responses to Questionnaire on Learning Strategy Use

Learning Strategies	Answers	N
Think of relationships between what already know and new things learn in English	Very rarely Less than half the time About half the time More than half the time Almost always	1 1 2 1 2
Create a mental image of what heard	Very rarely Less than half the time About half the time More than half the time Almost always	1 0 2 3 1
Watch English language TV shows spoken in English	Very rarely Less than half the time About half the time More than half the time Almost always	0 1 1 3 2
Listen to popular songs on the radio	Very rarely Less than half the time About half the time More than half the time Almost always	4 1 0 1 1
Try not to translate word-for-word	Very rarely Less than half the time About half the time More than half the time Almost always	0 3 1 2 1
Make guesses to understand unfamiliar English words	Very rarely Less than half the time About half the time More than half the time Almost always	0 0 2 3 2
Try to guess what the other person will say next in English	Very rarely Less than half the time About half the time More than half the time Almost always	0 1 2 3 1
Pay attention when someone is speaking English	Very rarely Less than half the time About half the time More than half the time Almost always	0 0 1 3 3
Ask the other person to slow down or say again if do not understand something in English	Very rarely Less than half the time About half the time More than half the time Almost always	0 1 1 4 1
Try to learn about the culture of English speakers	Very rarely Less than half the time About half the time More than half the time Almost always	0 0 3 2 2

Results for Secondary Research Question #2: Attitudes towards Language Learning

The following section presents the findings related to the secondary research question concerning the influences of implementing aural authentic materials on the students' attitudes towards learning English.

Results from the interviews with students. The purpose of the interviews was to obtain the students' viewpoints towards applying authentic materials in the classroom and its influences on the students' attitudes towards learning the second language. The results from the interviews showed that the students were pleased with the listening practice they had in the language program. Implementing aural authentic materials in the ESL classroom appeared to increase the students' motivation to learn the target language. Having experienced authentic materials in class, the students desired to have more exposure to a variety of the English language spoken by various groups of native speakers. Following is the students' viewpoints about the listening practice that they had in the language class.

Akiko: "I want to have chance to conversation . . . I can't speak English very well, so I uh listen normally. . . . If I take a lesson more, it is uh help to understand."

Cheng: "I like to take her class, and I like to listen, and I think it is necessary . . . it give me chance to speak and to listen English . . . I have to live here, and I have to, um, communicate with others. . . . I wish that I can have some opportunities to speak to the others, not just [the ESL teacher] . . . I like to speak to different people and use the, uh, different speech. . . . [Mini-lecture] tape too short, it should be longer."

Choi: "Sometimes uh, this uh, in class I like, sometimes I like this class. Sometimes I like out- outside, uh visiting class-visiting class . . . because interesting."

Enrique: "Yeah, I like-I likt it, yeah. I like all-all-all of them because they, the things help me."

Kim: "… I think because I can't say English, it's like foolish, like stupid; they-they-they

look like, they think, I think they think, I thought they think us like-like some-

some savage, or maybe I need more English . . . but right now is, I'm very weak

because I didn't say, and I don't understand."

Sonya: "I like, I don't like speaking English. I prefer listening to speaking. . . . I like

take the class more than outside."

Yuki: "I want to talk many people, and I want to pick up English many people; I want to

pick up different English. . . . Some uh, native American people use uh, slang . . .

I want to learn slang, informal-informal English. . . . I want to-I want to listen for,

I want to listen, I want to lis- listen lecture and, I-I uh, I want to listen anything."

Summary of Findings Related to the Students' Attitudes towards Language Learning

Based on the interviews with students, it can be summarized that the

implementation of aural authentic materials in the ESL classroom helped increase the

students' motive for language learning. The students were enthusiastic about listening to

the target language and meeting more native speakers outside the classroom.

Overall Findings of the Study

Considering the findings obtained principally from the self-evaluation

questionnaire, on which the individual student rated his/her comprehension of spoken

English, once at the beginning and once at the end of the language program, the students

could be arranged into two major groups. One included those students whose

competence in listening comprehension had improved after having experienced listening

to authentic materials in the ESL classroom. The other included those students whose

listening ability in the target language appeared to be unchanged over the period of their

language program.

Students with no Progress in Listening Ability

Having exposed to some authentic listening materials in the classroom, Akiko and Choi had not shown a progress in their ability to understand English spoken by native speakers either in the language class or in the real world outside the classroom. Both Akiko and Choi considered themselves having serious problems in listening to the English language. They hardly understood what native English-speaking people said to them. Having studied English in her home country for several years, Akiko was acquainted to English spoken with Japanese pronunciation. Consequently, Akiko tended to learn proper word pronunciation as she listened to English spoken by native speakers. Both Akiko and Choi had very limited experience with aural authentic materials; one had been in the United States for a relatively short period of time; the other, despite a longer stay, was usually absent from the language class due to her pregnancy.

Akiko and Choi were comfortable with using their own native languages in communicating with people from their home countries. When they were required to use English in communicating with native people outside classroom, Akiko and Choi normally relied on the husband's English-language skills. In the classroom, Choi usually leaned toward the teacher and nodded head as she listened. Both Akiko and Choi were rather reserved and generally did not respond without being called on by the teacher. When Choi was directed to answer a question or to perform a task, she usually waited for either the teacher to repeat the same direction a few more times or Kim to help translate into Korean, before she responded to what the teacher said. Akiko, however, usually responded properly to the teacher's question or direction.

Students with Progress in Listening Ability

The English-listening ability in five other students in the current study: Cheng, Enrique, Kim, Sonya, and Yuki, appeared to have improved over the semester period. Of the five students, based on the responses to the self-evaluation questionnaire, Kim was the only student whose progress was shown in understanding English encountered both

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inside and outside the ESL classroom. In the interviews, Kim often mentioned about his dislike of learning English and his need for reading practice. Kim was always late or absent from the language class. Furthermore, he usually missed when the teacher planned for going on a field trip or having a guest speaker in the classroom; Kim stated that he was shy and did not like to speak to others. In the classroom, Kim normally kept quiet and responded only when the teacher called his name. By the end of the semester, Kim reported himself understanding about half of spoken English he encountered outside, but he understood more than half of the listening practice in the ESL class.

Cheng, saying that she forced herself to like English, had intent to improve her communicative skills in the target language because of the necessity for daily survival in an English-speaking environment. Cheng normally nodded head or smiled as listening to the teacher. She had never been absent from the language class except the days when the teacher took students on a field trip. Cheng preferred having a guest speaking coming to class and having lessons inside the classroom since she felt tired when going outside. Staying home and using only Chinese with her husband over the weekends, Cheng faced a little difficulty in understanding English and needed time to adjust herself back to the target language on the weekdays. In her opinion, the mini-lectures implemented in the ESL class were too short and contained the same level of difficulty from the first to the last lessons. Cheng normally responded accurately to what she was directed; she also spontaneously responded to the questions that the teacher addressed to the whole class. However, Cheng often spoke softly when she was not certain with the answers. Being able to understand most of what she heard, Cheng's progress in listening ability was more noticeably in her understanding the target language outside the language classroom.

Sonya and Yuki had taken a language class with this teacher since the previous semester. As a result, they were accustomed to the teacher's spoken language. Judging themselves understanding less than half of English spoken by native speakers, Sonya and Yuki had improved the listening ability over the semester period. However, their listening comprehension in class appeared to be better than their understanding of native speakers outside the classroom. The two students approached the second-language learning differently. Yuki was outgoing, willing to take a chance, and enthusiastic over

having a guest speaker in class and meeting people on the field trip; she usually asked questions and always talked a lot when the teacher asked about her home country. Sonya, on the other hand, felt more comfortable and secured in classroom setting. Sonya had more confidence in her reading ability than her listening or speaking skills; she normally preferred to listen rather than to express her points. Being sociable herself, Sonya was more comfortable with using her native language, Portuguese.

Enrique was the only student who had never missed the class. Being the youngest and normally the only male in the class, spending time for adjusting to a new environment, having a desire to practice speaking skills, Enrique appeared timid and quiet at the beginning of the semester; he usually smiled, nodded head, and hardly responded to what the teacher said. Toward the end of the semester, however, Enrique became more assertive in class participation. Enrique always answered the teacher's questions quickly and responded to the teacher's instructions rather accurately. Since Enrique generally stayed home with his parents after the class, he mentioned his need for exposure to English in other environments. A summary profile of all the students is presented in Appendix L.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter discusses the results of the present study. Summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations for future research, and implications for teaching are also described.

Summary of the Study

The primary research question presented in this study was the following:

What are the influences of aural authentic materials on

the listening comprehension in students of English as

a second language?

Two secondary research questions addressed in the study were

1.   What kinds of learning strategies are most frequently used by ESL

students listening to aural authentic materials in the classroom?

2.   What are the influences of aural authentic materials on ESL students'

attitudes towards learning English?

Considering the analyzed data and using the proposed research questions as a guide, the summaries of the present study were as follows.

1. The implementation of aural authentic materials in the ESL classroom helped increase students' comfort level and self-confidence to listen to the target language.

2. Listening comprehension in ESL students appeared to have improved, especially in the classroom setting, after they had exposed to aural authentic materials in the classroom.

3. ESL students used various learning strategies when they listened to aural authentic materials. Frequently used strategies were paying attention when someone was speaking and asking people to slow down or say again.

4. To practice and improve their listening ability outside classroom, ESL students generally watched television.

5. Implementing aural authentic materials in the ESL classroom helped increase ESL students' motivation to expose themselves to the target language.

Discussion of Results

Due to the small number of students in the research study, the particular learning situation, and the limited access to the students (see Appendix M), the interpretation of the results are limited. Additionally, to the extent that the students may or may not accurately reflect the entire population of ESL students, the interpretation of the results from this study should not be generalized. The following section discusses the findings related to the proposed research questions concerning the influences of aural authentic materials, the learning strategy use, and the attitudes towards language learning.

Authenticity of the Listening Materials

Authenticity refers to the degree to which language teaching materials have the qualities of natural speech (Richards et al., 1992). Some people maintain that a text generated by a native speaker of the language is considered authentic. Some assert that texts created to seem real are authentic. For other people, texts spoken by native speakers for native speakers but were edited for pedagogical purposes are considered authentic (Ring, 1986). Rogers and Medley (1988) use the term "unmodified authentic discourse" to refer to "the language that occurs originally as a genuine act of communication" (p.

467). On the other hand, "language that reflects the features likely to occur in unmodified discourse, but that is produced for pedagogical purposes" is called "simulated authentic discourse" (Rogers & Medley, 1988, p. 467).

Language may be categorized according to degree of authenticity. Ring (1986) determines language as "purely authentic" (p. 205) when it is spontaneously produced by native speakers for the purposes of accomplishing a task. The language is considered less authentic when one participant knows that the situation is being monitored or the speakers are being tape-recorded for teaching purposes. A simulated role-play in which native speakers are given a situation and asked to act it out while being recorded is considered least authentic. Composed conversations that are printed in textbooks for the purposes of teaching specific structures or vocabulary, however, are determined inauthentic (Ring, 1986).

In the current study, the listening materials implemented in the ESL classroom were primarily audio-taped mini-lectures. To the extent that the mini-lectures, presented for a few-minute long, were not real lectures addressed directly to this group of students, neither were they audio-taped of real lectures in a real college lecture hall, these mini-lectures are not considered pure authentic. However, the mini-lectures were not totally scripted materials in which a person had to perform reading something that was written for them. Rather, on the basis of degree of authenticity, the mini-lectures are considered semi-scripted materials because of the fact that they represented the way a real lecturer talks to a real class and that they contained some features of an unplanned spoken discourse, such as redundancy, ungrammatical features, and incomplete sentences. Figure 4 shows the features of authentic materials along the range of authenticity.

```
┌────────────────────────────────────┐
│           A real lecture:            │
│  A native speaker gives a real       │
│  lecture in a real college class     │
│  or lecture hall.                    │
└────────────────────────────────────┘
                  │
                  ▼
┌────────────────────────────────────┐
│       A semi-scripted lecture:       │
│  A native speaker was given a        │
│  situation to perform a lecture      │
│  while being recorded.               │
└────────────────────────────────────┘
                  │
                  ▼
┌────────────────────────────────────┐
│         A scripted lecture:          │
│  A native speaker was given a        │
│  written paper to read while         │
│  being recorded.                     │
└────────────────────────────────────┘
```
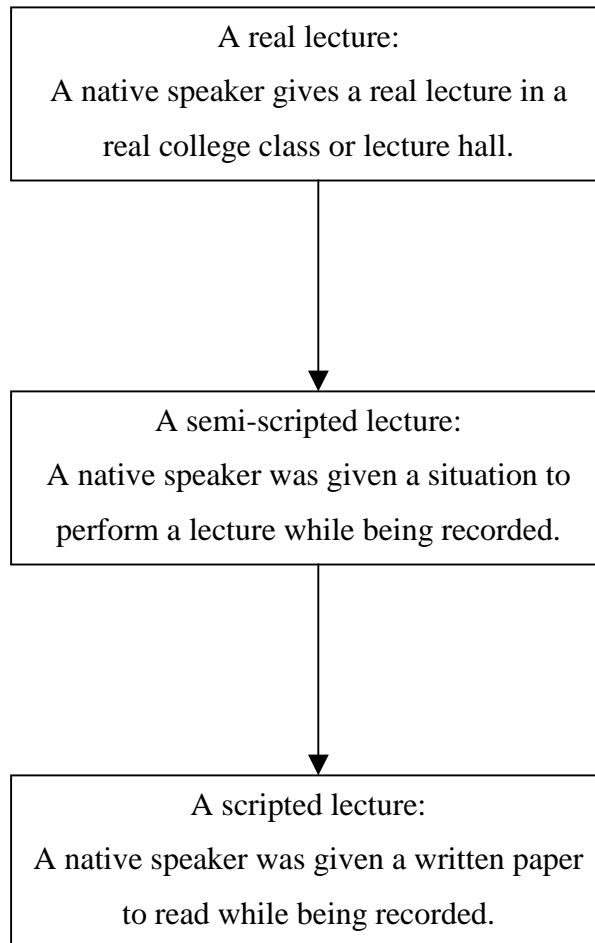
Figure 4   Degree of authenticity

Influences of Aural Authentic Materials on Listening Comprehension

Development in a second language starts immediately upon students' exposure to the target language. At the beginning, the students may not understand what they heard because of their unfamiliarity with native accents, vocabulary items, and native speakers' normal speed of utterance. Nevertheless, the students gradually develop their language comprehension as they have opportunities to experience language used by native speakers of the target language. Research shows that students may take six months to two years after their arrival in a new environment to demonstrate basic competence in the second language (Peregoy & Boyle, 1997).

The language that takes place in ESL classroom is generally characterized as being different from the language that takes place outside classroom. Many students experience problems shifting from understanding classroom talk to understanding natural spoken language. It is quite common for second-language students to complain that native speakers speak too fast. Students feel that faster speech is more difficult to understand; they find it easier to handle if the language is spoken slowly (Derwing & Munro, 1997). In spite of the fact that students are able to gather some meaning from authentic speech, they still find themselves in trouble understanding native speakers of the target language. This is generally the result of second-language students' misunderstanding that comprehension requires understanding every single word .

In order to prepare second-language students for real-life communication, it is necessary to have students expose to a variety of native-like speech. The teacher can provide these opportunities by bringing authentic listening materials into the classroom and making them accessible to the students (Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994). The use of aural authentic materials allows students to experience the language used as the primary vehicle of everyday communication among native speakers.

Students' existing knowledge or background knowledge plays a significant role in their comprehension of the aural texts (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Platt & Brooks, 1994; Rubin, 1994; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994). Listeners draw on their pre-existing knowledge

to help them interpret the text and to create expectations of what they are about to hear (Bacon, 1992; Tsui & Fullilove, 1998). Academic listening materials require an extensive reservoir of background knowledge relevant to any given discipline, ESL students have difficulty understanding the information in spoken texts when they lack familiarity with the topic or the cultural elements in the discourse. The cultural differences can cause numerous misunderstandings and communicative conflicts.

It is an ideal to check students' comprehension in their own native language in order to ensure that the content, not the language, is being tested. However, a diverse ESL class makes it impossible to use students' first languages to assess their comprehension (Garza, 1991). Typically, students have to produce some output to demonstrate their understanding of the text. Different types of student response can be following directions, selecting a picture, or drawing a picture. Other forms used in response to questions are verbal: yes/no, prosodic: mmh/uh huh, and gestural: nod/shake of the head (Bishop, Chan, Hartley, & Weir, 1998).

What is going on inside the student's head is inaccessible; therefore, external signals are observed to monitor whether or not the student has understood the spoken text. Brown (1986) states, "It is not enough for the student simply to nod from time to time in a sociable manner to signify understanding. Such nods may indicate anything from perfectly adequate understanding to total confusion" (p. 285). Consequently, the students should be required to produce some form of physical or verbal response to indicate how well they have understood a spoken text.

The findings of this research study presented that implementing authentic listening materials in the ESL classroom helped increase students' level of comfort and self-confidence to listen and to expose themselves to the target language. The study also showed that comprehension in ESL students has improved after their exposure to authentic materials in the second-language classroom. Due to the structured listening practice and the familiarity with the teacher's English, students' listening comprehension in class appeared to have improved more than their comprehension outside classroom where certain authenticity features, such as pace, accent, and dialects, could impede the comprehension.

<u>Use of Learning Strategies</u>

Language learning strategies are thoughts and behaviors that students use to improve their knowledge and understanding of a target language (Cohen, 1998). There are three types of learning strategies: cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and social and affective strategies (Chamot, 1993; Oxford et al., 1989; Vandergrift, 1997). Cognitive strategies involve unconscious interactions with the material to be learned, such as inferencing, resourcing, and note-taking. Metacognitive strategies, on the other hand, involve conscious management and control over the learning process, such as planning, paying attention, and monitoring. Social and affective strategies involve interacting with another person or using affective control to assist learning, such as questioning, working with peers, and lowering anxiety (O'Malley et al., 1989; Oxford et al., 1989; Vogely, 1995; Vandergrift, 1997).

The students participating in this research study used all three types of learning strategies to facilitate their comprehension and language learning. Cognitive strategies frequently used by the ESL students were inferencing: using available information to guess meanings of unfamiliar words, resourcing: using available reference sources such as a dictionary or a family member, and note-taking: writing down key words to assist the listening task. Metacognitive strategies used by the students were directed attention: deciding in advance to attend to the listening task and maintaining attention while listening; seeking practice opportunities: deciding to practice listening skills by watching television shows spoken in English. Social and affective strategies used by the students in this study were questioning: asking another person to say again or to slow down.

The language learning strategies used by different language learners vary according to many variables including motivation, gender, cultural background, and learning style (Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Grainger, 1997; Green & Oxford, 1995; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Oxford, 1994). More motivated students tended to use more strategies than less motivated peers. Students of Asian background tended to use rote memorization strategies and rule-oriented strategies more than students from other

cultural backgrounds. Students' general approach to language learning, such as auditory or visual, also determined the choice of learning strategies.

Many empirical studies confirmed the relationships between the use of language learning strategies and second-language achievement (Gardner et al., 1997; Green & Oxford, 1995; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford & Anderson, 1995; Park, 1997). Cohen (1998) stated, "no single strategy will be appropriate for all learners or for all tasks, and individual learners can and should apply the various strategies in different ways, according to their personal language learning needs" (pp. 266-267).

Attitudes towards Language Learning

Students vary considerably in their attitudes towards the target language, the class, the teacher, and the people who speak that language. Research studies showed that a positive attitude towards an English class is an important factor in students' second-language learning (Gardner, Day, & MacIntyre, 1992; Gradman & Hanania, 1991; Richard-Amato, 1996). Cook (1996) stated, "the student's attitudes towards the learning situation as measured by feelings about the classroom teacher and level of anxiety about the classroom contribute towards the student's motivation" (p. 131). Also, positive attitudes towards the target language and culture may have an effect on students' contact with native speakers; the contact with native speakers of the language in a wide variety of communicative situations will eventually affects students' language learning and language achievement (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Mantle-Bromley, 1995; Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, & Sumrall, 1993; Yager, 1998). To maintain students' positive attitudes, the teacher might consider providing an appropriate input and interaction to the class by allowing the students to contact with native speakers and implementing authentic materials in the classroom.

The use of audio-recorded materials has an advantage of giving exposure to a variety of native speaker voices. The use of video materials, on the other hand, offers more clues for comprehension to students. A variety of visual contexts, including physical appearance of the speaker, gestures, and facial expressions, are the advantages of

using video recordings in language instruction (Flynn, 1998; Johnstone, 1997). Videotapes of natural interaction among native speakers of the language are worthwhile to promote listening comprehension in second-language students.

Most of the students in this research study reported that the language they heard in the classroom was different from the language they encountered outside. The students might not realize that the class was designed fundamentally for academic-listening practice. The listening materials were basically mini-lectures reflecting varied academic disciplines. Some students might have difficulty understanding the subject matters they were not familiar with. The students, however, were very enthusiastic when they attended a real academic class of their choice; they did not have much difficulty in understanding the class lectures since they had certain background knowledge about the class materials.

Conclusions

Listening, compared with speaking, reading, and writing, is the most frequently used language skill in both the classroom and daily communication. In a language class, comprehension of aural input plays a critical role in second-language acquisition and learning. It is, therefore, important that listening be emphasized in the early phases of second-language instruction. Despite the significance of listening skill, a traditional language classroom focuses extensively on reading and writing skills, and exposes ESL students more to written input than aural input (Ferris, 1998; Leow, 1993). Recently, the interest in listening skill has increased markedly by the growing number of studies related to listening in second-language contexts (Berne, 1998).

Residing in an English-speaking country, ESL students are surrounded by the target language both in the classroom and the community. Ability in target-language listening comprehension is important for the students' daily survival. Many ESL students, however, experience difficulty making the transition from hearing classroom language to understanding natural speech in the real world (Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994).

Implementing aural authentic materials in the language classroom exposes ESL students to real-language use from the beginning of language study.

Authentic language reflects a naturalness of form, and an appropriateness of cultural and situational context (Rogers & Medley, 1988). Since authentic texts are generated by and for native speakers of the language, they are perceived as being too difficult for ESL students to understand. Implementing authentic speech in the second-language class, therefore, can have a negative effect on students' frustration. Nevertheless, the listening-comprehension skill in ESL students tends to improve through exposure to authentic input.

<u>Recommendations</u>

<u>Recommendations for Future Research</u>

This research study was conducted with only a small group of ESL students. As a result, the interpretation and the generalizability of the findings are limited. A future research may be administered to a larger group of students or to several small groups of international students so that the effects of using authentic listening materials on students' proficiency levels could be interpreted. A future research may consider to include only those students who are newcomers so as to be able to ensure the students' limited experiences with authentic materials and to assure the effects of authentic listening texts on students' listening-comprehension ability.

The participants in this study could be divided into two groups, according to their purpose of coming to the United States. One was the group of students who came along with their family; these students attended the ESL class in order to practice their language skills for daily-life situations and future career. The other was the group of students who intended to continue their education in an academic institution in this country; they took the language class to prepare themselves for future academic courses. Since the class was fundamentally designed for the latter group of students, and recorded mini-lectures were primary authentic materials implemented in the instruction, a future research study should

consider to include only those students whose intention was corresponded with that of the designed ESL course. On a long-term process, a researcher can work on a case study of a small group of students to find out the effects of listening practice in ESL class on student' listening comprehension in academic classes where the students encounter bona fide academic lectures.

It is also interesting to investigate the different effects of aural authentic materials on listening comprehension in students who learn English as a second language and those who learn English as a foreign language. Students who are living in an environment where the target language is predominantly used may or may not develop more ability in listening comprehension than those students who are living in an environment where the target language is used only in the classroom. This is because a lot of second-language students do not attempt to seek for face-to-face interactions with the native speakers of the target language, even though they are residing in an English-speaking environment.

Implications for Teaching

The findings of this study indicated that listening comprehension in ESL students appeared to have improved after they had experienced authentic listening materials in class. A classroom implication for this is that authentic materials should be implemented in any second-language classroom, despite the fact that the students are living in an English-speaking country.

For most students in the study, ESL classroom is the place where they primarily experience the target language and practice the language skills. In order to prepare the students with the language they tend to encounter in real-life situations, ESL teachers have to talk in a normal way using normal rate of speech so that the students would not experience much difficulty listening and understanding other native speakers.

One student in this research study mentioned that the use of audio-tapes in a language listening class did not present a real language use. A classroom implication for this is that both audio-recorded and video-recorded materials should be provided in any language instruction. If ESL students are limited to the use of audio-tapes in listening-

comprehension practice, they will miss the cultural interactions between native speakers and the nonverbal cues such as gestures and facial expressions that facilitate the comprehension (Allen, 1999; Flynn, 1998; Herron, 1994; Secules et al., 1992).

The findings of the study also imply that teachers can promote students' attitudes towards language learning by providing materials and activities that are interesting and useful for students' goals. Students who intend to attend an academic institution should be provided with opportunities to practice listening to real lectures by various speakers and to interact with native speakers of the target language. Inviting instructors or guest speakers to the classroom allow ESL students to naturally make use of speakers' gestures and facial expressions and to experience face-to-face interactions where they can actively negotiate the information with the speakers.

Research studies show that students' high score on the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language), a standardized test used to measure the English-language proficiency of foreign students applying to universities in the United States, does not assure the students' comprehension of a lecture (Dunkel & Davis, 1994; Mason, 1994). The listening skills of these students are still inferior to those native speakers of the language. An implication is, therefore, to provide a course in developing academic skills prior to the students' entering academic classes.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: CONSENT FORM

This is an invitation to you to participate in a study of listening in English as a second language. The study is a part of my dissertation for the Doctoral Degree in Education which I am taking at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. This research project is designed to examine the effects of aural materials on listening comprehension in students of English as a second language.

Your participation in this research will consist of two interviews. The interviews will focus on your perceptions and attitudes towards listening comprehension. Each interview will take about one hour and will be scheduled at your convenience. The interviews will be audio taped. Anything you say during the interview will remain confidential.

Classroom listening activities will be video taped. All the audio tapes and video tapes will be kept and transcribed by me. As the tapes are transcribed, each person will be assigned a code which will be used to substitute wherever the person may be identified in the transcripts. Once the audio tapes and video tapes are transcribed, I will erase the tapes and remove all identifying information. Only the researcher will have access to the audio tapes, the video tapes, the transcripts, and data containing information that would identify individuals. In any reports based on these data the identities of all participants will be masked in such a way that quoted comments cannot be attributed to particular individuals. A summary of the research findings will be available upon request.

From this research project we hope to learn more about how aural materials affect listening comprehension in English-as-a-second-language learning. You are free to withdraw from this study at any time without penalty or prejudice, by contacting Dr. Judith L. Shrum, Division of Curriculum & Instruction, War Memorial Hall, Virginia Tech (231-5269), or Judy Snoke, Cranwell International Center (231-6963).

This study has been approved by the Human Subjects Committee and the Institutional Review Board. If you have questions please contact Dr. Thomas M. Sherman (231-5598, 307 War Memorial Hall), or Dr. Ernest R. Stout, Chair of the Institutional Review Board (231-9359).

Your signature below indicates that you have read the information above and have agreed to participate in the research project. In order to schedule interviews please include your telephone number.

_____   _____
Signature of participant   Date

_____
Telephone number

Name   _____

Date   _____

Age   _____

Gender   _____

Mother tongue   _____

Language(s) you speak at home   _____

Why do you want to learn the English language?

_____   interested in the language

_____   interested in the culture

_____   have friends who speak the language

_____   need it for my future education

_____   need it for my future career

_____   need it for travel

_____   other   _____

                     _____

Do you enjoy language learning?   Yes   No

What other languages have you studied?   _____

What has been your favorite experience in language learning?

_____

_____

APPENDIX C: CODES FOR DATA ANALYSIS

a   - answered question that teacher/guest speaker asked

na   - not answered question that teacher/guest speaker asked

i   - followed instruction that teacher/guest speaker gave

ni   - not followed instruction that teacher/guest speaker gave

nh / sh - nodded head or shook head as listening to teacher/guest speaker/classmate/mini-
         lecture

nh-a / sh-a   - nodded head for "yes" / shook head for "no" as an answer for
         teacher's/guest speaker's question

l(1)   - laughed as listening to teacher/guest speaker speaking

l(3)   - laughed as talking or when finished talking

s(1)   - smiled as listening to teacher/guest speaker speaking

s(3)   - smiled as talking or when finished talking

s-l(1)   - smiled and laughed as listening to teacher/guest speaker speaking

s-l(3)   - smiled and laughed as talking or when finished talking

tt   - looked at teacher --when teacher was speaking

                          --when guest speaker/classmate was speaking to teacher

cm   - looked at classmate   --when classmate was speaking

                          --when teacher/guest speaker was speaking to classmate

vt   - looked at class visitor/guest speaker --when s/he was speaking

                          --when teacher/classmate was speaking to guest speaker

bk   - read or looked at book --when listened to mini-lecture

                          --when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was reading/
                          speaking/asking question about material in book

bk(3)   - read or looked at book when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was speaking about
         something not in book

sc   - read or looked at script --when listened to mini-lecture

                          --when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was reading/
                          speaking/asking question about material in script

sc(3)   - read or looked at script when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was speaking about something not in script

ht   - read or looked at handout when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was reading/ speaking/asking question about material in handout

ht(3)   - read or looked at handout when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was speaking about something not in handout

bt   - read or looked at booklet when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was reading/ speaking/asking question about material in booklet

bt(3)   - read or looked at own booklet --when classmate was speaking in front of class

                                        --when teacher was speaking about something not in booklet

nt   - read or looked at notes --when listened to mini-lecture

                                        --when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was reading/ speaking/asking question about material in notes

nt(3)   - read or looked at notes when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was speaking about something not in that note

pp   - read or looked at paper when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was reading/ speaking/asking question about material in that paper

pp(3)   - read or looked at paper when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was speaking about something not in that paper

d   - looked up word or meaning of word in dictionary as reading material, working on exercise, or listening to teacher/guest speaker

pt   - looked at picture when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was showing/pointing at it

bd   - looked at board when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was writing/pointing something/explaining what s/he wrote

bd(3)   - looked at board when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was speaking about something not on the board

w   - wrote down answer or took notes as listening to teacher/guest speaker/
classmate/mini-lecture

u   - underlined printed material as reading or listening to mini-lecture

q   - asked question about what teacher/guest speaker/classmate talked about

rp   - repeated word that teacher/guest speaker just said

c   - gave comment or said something as listening to teacher/guest speaker/classmate

tk   - talked to classmate

o   - looked somewhere or outside --when listened to mini-lecture

            --when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was speaking

tb   - looked at table --when listened to mini-lecture

            --when teacher/guest speaker/classmate was speaking

hp   - helped classmate when classmate did not know answer/word that teacher asked

The codes for similar manners were grouped into major categories of classroom behaviors as follows.

1. Following instruction: i
2. Answering questions: a, nh-a, sh-a
3. Not answering questions / not following instructions: na, ni
4. Nodding / shaking head as listening: nh, sh
5. Smiling / laughing as listening: s(1), l(1), s-l(1)
6. Paying attention as listening to speaker: tt, cm, vt; bk, sc, ht, bt, nt, pp, pt, bd
7. Taking notes or writing down answers: w
8. Using a dictionary to check meanings: d
9. Asking questions about material: q
10. Repeating words after teacher: rp
11. Underlining material as listening: u

12. Looking somewhere as someone was speaking: bk(3), sc(3), ht(3), bt(3), nt(3), pp(3), bd(3); o, tb

13. Giving comment or saying something about material: c

14. Helping classmate with words: hp

15. Talking to classmate: tk

APPENDIX D: VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY WORKSHEETS

Table D-1   Face Validity Using 100 Unambiguous Classroom Events

Categories	Percentages for First Coding	Percentages for Second Coding	Differences of Percentages
Followed instruction	2	2	0
Answered questions	9	10	1
Not answered questions/ not followed instructions	4	4	0
Nodded / shook head as listening	13	12	1
Smiled / laughed as listening	8	8	0
Paid attention as listening	35	35	0
Took notes or wrote down answers	4	4	0
Used dictionary to check meanings	5	5	0
Asked questions about material	5	5	0
Repeated words after teacher	5	5	0
Underlined materials	1	1	0
Looked somewhere as someone was speaking	4	4	0
Gave comment or said something	1	1	0
Helped classmate with words	0	0	0
Talked to classmate	4	4	0
Total	*100*	*100*	*2*

Appendix D (continued)

Table D-2   Construct Validity Using 100 Unambiguous Classroom Events

Categories	Percentages for Researcher	Percentages for Criterion Observer	Differences of Percentages
Followed instruction	2	1	1
Answered questions	9	9	0
Not answered questions/ not followed instructions	4	4	0
Nodded / shook head as listening	13	13	0
Smiled / laughed as listening	8	8	0
Paid attention as listening	35	37	2
Took notes or wrote down answers	4	4	0
Used dictionary to check meanings	5	5	0
Asked questions about material	5	5	0
Repeated words after teacher	5	5	0
Underlined materials	1	1	0
Looked somewhere as someone was speaking	4	3	1
Gave comment or said something	1	1	0
Helped classmate with words	0	0	0
Talked to classmate	4	4	0
Total	*100*	*100*	*4*

Table D-3   Observer Reliability Using Observation Notes and Videotape

Categories	Numbers of Events from Class Observation (25 days)	Numbers of Events from Class Videotaping (1 day)
Followed instruction	209	37
Answered questions	304	62
Not answered questions/ not followed instructions	45	14
Nodded / shook head as listening	148	89
Smiled / laughed as listening	88	51
Paid attention as listening	753	398
Took notes or wrote down answers	103	13
Used dictionary to check meanings	97	17
Asked questions about material	47	10
Repeated words after teacher	17	11
Underlined materials	18	1
Looked somewhere as someone was speaking	97	89
Gave comment or said something	53	19
Helped classmate with words	14	0
Talked to classmate	24	27
Total	*2,017*	*838*

Covariance = 17559.5

Correlation coefficient = .94

Table D-4   Interrater Reliability Using Three 10-minute Videotape Segments

Categories	Researcher		Criterion Observer		Differences of Percentages
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	
Followed instruction	11	4	12	4	0
Answered questions	21	8	16	6	2
Not answered questions/ not followed instructions	3	1	3	1	0
Nodded / shook head as listening	33	12	34	13	1
Smiled / laughed as listening	28	10	31	11.5	1.5
Paid attention as listening	116	43	114	42	1
Took notes or wrote down	5	2	6	2	0
Used dictionary	3	1	3	1	0
Asked questions about material	2	1	2	1	0
Repeated words after teacher	2	1	1	1	0
Underlined materials	0	0	0	0	0
Looked somewhere as listening	24	9	31	11.5	2.5
Gave comment / said something	10	4	6	2	2
Helped classmate with words	0	0	0	0	0
Talked to classmate	11	4	12	4	0
Total	*269*	*100*	*271*	*100*	*10*

Table D-5   Intraobserver Reliability Using Three 10-minute Videotape Segments

Categories	First Coding		Second Coding		Differences of Percentages
	N	%	N	%	
Followed instruction	11	4	11	4	0
Answered questions	21	8	21	8	0
Not answered questions/ not followed instructions	3	1	3	1	0
Nodded / shook head as listening	32	12	33	12	0
Smiled / laughed as listening	27	10	28	10	0
Paid attention as listening	123	45	116	43	2
Took notes or wrote down	5	2	5	2	0
Used dictionary	3	1	3	1	0
Asked questions about material	2	1	2	1	0
Repeated words after teacher	2	1	2	1	0
Underlined materials	0	0	0	0	0
Looked somewhere as listening	23	8	24	9	1
Gave comment / said something	8	3	10	4	1
Helped classmate with words	0	0	0	0	0
Talked to classmate	11	4	11	4	0
Total	*271*	*100*	*269*	*100*	*4*

APPENDIX E: 100 UNAMBIGUOUS ISOLATED EVENTS

1.   Teacher asked a question, no one answered.

2.   Yuki and Akiko looked at Enrique as they listened to what he said.

3.   Teacher asked students if they had seen that movie, no one answered.

4.   Enrique and Yuki looked at teacher as they listened to teacher talking about movie.

5.   Enrique answered question.

6.   Enrique nodded head as he listened to teacher.

7.   Teacher stopped tape and asked students what else they heard on tape; Enrique answered.

8.   Enrique looked at teacher when teacher paused tape and said something.

9.   Enrique and Yuki looked up meaning of words in dictionary as they worked on exercise.

10.   All students looked at book as they listened to words teacher read.

11.   All students followed teacher's instruction.

12.   Akiko wrote down on book what teacher wrote on board.

13.   Yuki and Choi looked at script when teacher read script …

14.   When teacher asked a question, Yuki and Enrique answered.

15.   Enrique and Akiko wrote on their book what teacher was writing on board.

16.   Teacher told students to look at what she wrote on board, all students looked at board.

17.   Choi sometimes nodded head as she listened to what teacher explained.

18.   Teacher asked students if they had anything else on their notes, Yuki answered.

19.   Choi used dictionary to check meaning of word.

20.   Teacher asked Yuki a question, Yuki answered.

21.   Teacher asked students if they knew word visitor just mentioned, no one answered.

22.   All students looked at visitor as they listened to what he was saying.

23.   When visitor mentioned about handout he gave, all students looked at handout.

24. All students looked at handout when visitor talked about material in the handout.
25. Enrique nodded head as he listened to visitor.
26. All students then looked at visitor when he answered what teacher just asked.
27. Yuki smiled after she listened to what visitor talked about.
28. Yuki, Choi, and Akiko looked at teacher when teacher said something.
29. Students then looked at visitor when visitor talked about his education background.
30. Enrique nodded head as he listened to visitor.
31. All students looked at visitor as they listened to him.
32. Choi, Akiko, and Yuki looked at teacher when teacher asked visitor a question.
33. All students looked at teacher as they listened to what she explained.
34. Yuki, Choi, and Akiko nodded head when they heard what teacher said.
35. Other students still looked at table as teacher talked.
36. Cheng and Yuki looked at teacher when teacher said something.
37. Enrique, Choi, and Akiko looked at table as they listened to teacher.
38. Students did not answer teacher's question.
39. All students looked at visitor when visitor talked.
40. Cheng nodded head as she listened to visitor.
41. Yuki and Akiko looked at teacher as they listened to what teacher explained.
42. Yuki answered teacher's question about Japan.
43. Cheng, Choi, and Akiko looked at Yuki as they listened to what Yuki talked about.
44. All students looked at visitor when he started to talk about his hometown.
45. All students looked at visitor's friend when he said something.
46. Yuki and Cheng nodded head as they listened to what visitor said.
47. Yuki asked a question.
48. Yuki smiled as she listened to what visitor said.

49. All students looked at handout when teacher talked about some activities listed in handout.

50. Kim wrote down something.

51. Students looked at teacher when teacher said something.

52. Enrique, Cheng, Choi, and Akiko looked at board as teacher was writing something.

53. Enrique asked visitor a question.

54. Enrique nodded head as he listened to what visitor said.

55. Akiko looked at teacher when teacher said something.

56. When teacher asked visitor to guess Enrique's age, Kim and Yuki laughed.

57. Enrique, Kim, and Yuki shook head.

58. Enrique talked about joining the air force.

59. Other students smiled when they heard what teacher just said.

60. Yuki nodded head as she listened to what teacher told her.

61. All students looked at teacher when teacher talked about Mountain Lake.

62. Teacher asked students if they had been to Mountain Lake, Yuki answered "yes."

63. Kim and Yuki talked to each other as teacher talked to class.

64. Enrique and Yuki looked at board as teacher pointed something on it.

65. Akiko underlined something as she read.

66. Enrique asked teacher where library was.

67. All students looked at book when teacher asked for another word or sentence students did not understand.

68. Kim talked to Yuki.

69. Akiko nodded head several times as she listened to what teacher said to her.

70. Other students looked at Kim as they listened to him.

71. Kim nodded head when he heard what teacher said.

72. When teacher talked, all students looked at teacher.

73. … Enrique answered "yes."

74. Choi laughed as she listened to what teacher said about octopus.

75. Sonya asked teacher a question about octopus.

76. Kim repeated word after teacher.

77. Akiko looked up meaning of words in dictionary as she read booklet.

78. Enrique and Kim talked to each other.

79. Yuki, Choi, and Akiko looked at Cheng as they listened to Cheng.

80. Akiko asked teacher about form.

81. Enrique wrote something in his notebook as he read booklet.

82. Kim repeated word when he heard teacher said.

83. Enrique used dictionary as he read booklet.

84. Cheng and Kim repeated word after teacher.

85. Akiko and Choi read their booklet as Enrique and teacher talked.

86. Kim and Yuki looked at Enrique as they listened to him.

87. Enrique used dictionary as he read booklet.

88. Teacher asked Enrique a question … Enrique answered.

89. Choi smiled.

90. Cheng repeated word teacher said.

91. Kim, Choi, and Cheng looked at teacher when teacher asked questions.

92. Kim shook head when he heard word teacher said.

93. Yuki, Choi, and Akiko looked at Sonya as they listened to Sonya.

94. Enrique turned to talk to Kim.

95. All students looked at teacher when teacher said something.

96. Cheng and Kim repeated word teacher just said.

97. All students looked at teacher as they listened to teacher talking about movie.

98. Yuki and Choi read booklet as teacher talked.

99. Choi laughed as she heard what teacher said.

100. Yuki smiled when teacher told students that they did a good job.

APPENDIX F: TRANSCRIPT OF VIDEOTAPED CLASS SESSION

10:01 → teacher asked a further question, Sonya answered correctly; other students kept looking at book; then students wrote down answers

→ Enrique called teacher's name and talked about something; Yuki and Akiko looked at Enrique as they listened to what he said

→ teacher told students to listen to words on p.170; when teacher played tape, all students looked at book as they listened to tape

10:02 → teacher paused tape, Enrique answered quickly by saying a few words he heard on tape; Yuki laughed; Akiko looked at Enrique and smiled; teacher repeated words Enrique just said and asked for one more word; Enrique answered (not correct); Sonya said correct answer

→ teacher continued tape; then teacher paused tape when she heard a name; Yuki nodded head when she heard movie name; teacher asked students if they had seen that movie, no one answered; Enrique and Yuki looked at teacher as they listened to teacher talked about movie; Enrique smiled and Yuki laughed when they heard what teacher said

→ teacher continued tape; all students looked at book as they listened to tape

10:03 → teacher paused tape; Enrique answered by saying word he just heard; other students still looked at book as teacher repeated word Enrique said; teacher continued tape for a while before she paused tape and asked a question; Enrique answered question; other students still looked at book

→ Enrique, Yuki, and Akiko looked at teacher as teacher explained; Enrique nodded head as he listened to teacher; when teacher wrote words on board, Yuki and Akiko looked at board and wrote words down on their book; Enrique looked at what teacher wrote on board; Enrique sometimes nodded head as he listened to teacher

10:04 → teacher continued tape; all students looked at book as they listened to tape

→ Enrique looked at teacher when teacher paused tape and said something; then all students looked at book when teacher continued tape

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10:05 → teacher stopped tape and asked students what else they heard on tape; Enrique answered; Akiko looked at Enrique when he talked

→ teacher told students to do exercise in pairs; when teacher told Enrique to move over to sit next to Yuki, Enrique stood up and moved to new seat

→ students worked on exercise with partner; Enrique and Yuki looked up meaning of words in dictionary as they worked on exercise; Akiko sometimes nodded head as she listened to Sonya

10:06 → teacher checked answers by reading one word at a time and waited for answer from students; all students looked at book as they listened to words teacher read; Yuki and Enrique answered

10:07 → teacher gave each student a typed script of lecture; teacher told students they would have 2 minutes to skim script; all students then read script quietly

→ Choi came in; teacher gave Choi a script and told her to skim script for 2 minutes

10:08 → Enrique asked teacher a question; then Enrique said something about movie

→ teacher told students that they had one minute left; all students read script quietly

10:09 → Yuki and Enrique looked up from script when they finished reading

→ teacher told students to stop reading and turned script over; all students followed teacher's instruction

10:10 → students sometimes looked at teacher as they listened to what teacher said

→ teacher told students to listen to tape and write down as many things as they could; all students took notes when teacher played tape

10:55 → teacher asked visitor a question; Choi and Akiko looked at visitor when he talked; when teacher said something, Yuki and Akiko looked at teacher; then Choi looked at teacher when teacher asked if students had other questions to ask visitor; all students looked at visitor's friend when he said something; Choi and Cheng nodded head as they listened to visitor's friend

→ teacher wrote on board what visitor's friend just said; Choi nodded head as she listened to visitor's friend and looked at what teacher was writing on board; Enrique and Kim talked to Carlos; then Kim looked at visitor's friend who was still talking; other students looked at what teacher was writing on board; Yuki nodded head as she listened to visitor's friend

10:56 → Yuki looked at handout; Cheng looked at board and nodded head as she listened to visitor's friend and saw what teacher wrote

→ teacher asked visitor's friend a question; Yuki looked at visitor's friend as she listened to him; students looked at what teacher was writing on board; Enrique talked to Carlos; Yuki looked at handout while other students looked at board as they listened to teacher and visitor's friend

→ Yuki looked at teacher and nodded head when she heard teacher talked about her bicycle

10:57 → teacher told visitor about Yuki's bicycle; Yuki laughed while Kim, Choi, and Akiko smiled as they heard what teacher said; students looked at Yuki when she started to tell about her bicycle; Choi looked at table and then at board as Yuki talked; when Yuki used hands to show something as she talked, Choi looked at Yuki and nodded head as she listened to Yuki

→ Akiko looked at Yuki and smiled as she listened to Yuki; Yuki smiled and laughed as she talked; students looked at teacher when teacher said something; Choi nodded head as she listened to teacher; Cheng, Akiko, and Enrique looked at Yuki when Yuki talked more about her bicycle; Yuki used hands when she did not know word to say; Yuki then repeated when teacher said word

→ Yuki nodded head when she heard what visitor's friend said; Akiko looked at visitor's friend and smiled as she listened; when Yuki talked, Cheng looked at Yuki, Kim and Akiko looked at handout, others looked at teacher; all students smiled when they heard Yuki talked about people throwing garbage in her basket; Akiko and Choi looked at Yuki as Yuki talked; Kim talked to Carlos; all students looked at visitor's friend when he talked to teacher; Cheng smiled as listened to teacher and visitor's friend

10:58 → Enrique talked to Carlos; Yuki looked up something in dictionary; then Enrique, Cheng, Choi, and Akiko looked at board as teacher was writing something; Enrique and Kim talked to Carlos before they looked at board; students looked at handout when visitor pointed at handout and said there was information on what they talked about

→ Enrique and Akiko looked at teacher when teacher asked Kim if he had questions; Kim did not say anything; Yuki, Cheng, Akiko, and Kim looked at handout while Choi and Cheng looked at board; teacher asked Cheng if she had questions, Cheng did not answer

→ Enrique asked visitor a question; Cheng, Kim, and Akiko looked at Enrique as they listened to his question; Yuki looked up something in dictionary; Cheng, Kim, and Yuki looked at visitor when he answered Enrique's question; then Kim looked at handout

10:59 → students looked at handout when visitor said something; then Choi looked at board; Cheng, Yuki, Enrique, and Kim then looked at visitor as they listened to visitor; Enrique nodded head as he listened to what visitor said

→ Akiko looked at teacher when teacher said something; Kim sometimes looked at handout and sometimes at visitor as he listened to visitor; Enrique and Cheng looked at visitor and nodded head as they listened to visitor; Kim wrote down something; Enrique nodded head as listening

11:00 → Akiko looked at handout while other students looked at visitor as visitor
talked; then all students looked at handout as visitor still talked; Enrique, Akiko,
and Yuki sometimes looked at visitor; Yuki nodded head as she listened to visitor
→ students looked at visitor when he asked question; when teacher repeated
question, Yuki and Choi looked at teacher; Yuki, Choi, Akiko, and Cheng looked
at Sonya when Sonya answered; when Akiko answered, Cheng looked at Akiko
while Enrique talked to Carlos, Choi looked at table, Yuki and Kim looked at
handout; Cheng and Akiko looked at Choi when Choi answered; Kim and Choi
looked at handout while Cheng and Akiko looked at Yuki when Yuki answered
→ Yuki nodded head when visitor said something; then all students looked at
Kim when Kim answered; Yuki smiled as she listened to Kim; all students looked
at teacher when teacher said something; Cheng looked at Carlos and nodded head
when Carlos answered; Enrique looked at visitor when visitor asked Carlos a
question; Kim, Yuki, and Akiko looked at Carlos as they listened to his answer;
Choi looked at table

11:01 → when Enrique answered, all students looked at Enrique; then Cheng looked at
visitor when visitor said something; when teacher asked visitor to guess Enrique's
age, Kim and Yuki laughed while other students smiled; Kim, Yuki, and Cheng
looked at visitor when visitor said a number; students looked at Enrique when
teacher said something about him; Kim and Cheng laughed while others smiled as
they heard what teacher said about Enrique
→ Kim, Yuki, Cheng, and Enrique shook head when visitor said wrong number;
Kim moved hand to tell that number was lower; students except Akiko nodded
head when visitor asked a question about Enrique's age; when visitor said another
number, Cheng, Enrique, Kim, and Yuki shook head; Cheng, Kim, and Yuki
moved hand up and down; all students looked at visitor and laughed
→ when visitor said correct number, all students except Akiko nodded head and
laughed; students looked at Enrique and smiled when Yuki said something as she

pointed her finger at Enrique; Enrique nodded head as he listened to Yuki; then all students looked at Enrique when he said something; when visitor talked, all students looked at visitor; Kim laughed while other students smiled as they listened to what visitor said

11:02 → Enrique talked about joining the air force; other students except Choi looked at Enrique and smiled as they listened to Enrique; Kim, Yuki, and Akiko looked at teacher when teacher said something; Enrique, Kim, and Yuki laughed while other students smiled when they heard what teacher just said; all students except Enrique looked at teacher as they listened to teacher

→ teacher asked Cheng how long she planned to stay in U.S.; other students looked at Cheng when Cheng answered; all students looked at visitor when he thanked student for their time; Enrique nodded head as he listened to visitor

→ students and teacher thanked visitor; Cheng, Yuki, and Akiko smiled; Kim said bye to visitors when they were leaving; then Kim, Yuki, and Choi looked at handout when teacher said something about what visitor just talked about

11:03 → teacher told students to think about activities listed in handout, what they wanted or not wanted to do; Yuki looked at handout; Kim, Choi, and Akiko looked at teacher as they listened to what teacher said; Yuki looked at teacher when teacher called her name, Yuki nodded head as she listened to what teacher told her; Akiko looked at teacher as teacher talked to Yuki

→ all students looked at teacher when teacher talked about Mountain Lake; teacher asked students if they had been to Mountain Lake, Yuki answered "yes"; Cheng nodded head as she listened to what teacher said

11:04 → students opened book when teacher went back to lesson; teacher gave script to Cheng, Kim, and Choi; Enrique talked to Carlos while Kim and Yuki talked to each other as teacher talked to class; Cheng, Choi, and Akiko looked at book when teacher said what she would do next -- teacher would play tape one more time for those who had not been in class at the beginning

11:51 → Cheng, Choi, and Enrique looked at Kim when Kim said something; when teacher responded to what Kim just said, all students except Yuki looked at teacher as they listened to teacher; Yuki looked at board

→ when teacher mentioned something about Cheng's animal, Cheng looked at her booklet and nodded head as she listened to teacher; Choi also nodded head as she looked at Cheng's booklet and listened to what teacher said

→ teacher called Sonya to go next; Sonya started by telling name of animal; Choi and Yuki looked at Sonya as they listened to what Sonya talked about; other students read their booklet

11:52 → Enrique, Choi, Yuki, and Akiko looked at Sonya as Sonya still talked about her animal; Cheng and Kim read booklet; when teacher said something, Enrique, Yuki, and Akiko looked at teacher; Cheng nodded head when she heard what teacher said

→ Akiko and Enrique sometimes read booklet as Sonya talked

11:53 → Cheng and Kim read booklet while other students looked at Sonya as they listened to what Sonya talked about; then Akiko looked at booklet, Kim looked at Sonya

→ all students looked at teacher when teacher said something; Enrique nodded head as he listened to teacher; then Kim and Enrique looked at their booklet; Yuki, Cheng, Akiko, and Choi kept looking at teacher and Sonya as they listened to them; Akiko sometimes looked at her booklet

11:54 → Cheng wrote something in her book; Kim and Enrique still read booklet; Yuki, Choi, and Akiko looked at Sonya as they listened to Sonya; Choi sometimes nodded head as she listened

→ Sonya finished talking; Akiko walked to front of classroom; Yuki, Choi, Kim, and Enrique looked at Akiko as they listened to Akiko talked about her animal; Choi smiled and Enrique nodded head as they listened to Akiko; then Enrique and Kim read their booklet

11:55 → students sometimes looked at Akiko as they listened to Akiko talked about her animal; sometimes students read their booklet as Akiko still talked

→ teacher asked Kim and Enrique if they remembered word Akiko just mentioned; Kim, Enrique, and Cheng looked at teacher when they heard what teacher asked; Enrique nodded head; Cheng and Kim repeated word teacher just said

11:56 → Enrique and Yuki read their booklet as other students looked at Akiko and listened to what Akiko said; Enrique, Kim, Yuki, and Cheng looked at teacher when teacher said something; then Yuki and Choi read booklet as teacher talked

→ Yuki looked at teacher and shook head when teacher called her name and asked a question; all students looked at teacher as they listened to teacher talked about movie; Enrique nodded head as he listened to what teacher said; Yuki then looked back at her booklet

11:57 → Enrique and Choi nodded head as they listened to what teacher said; Akiko returned to her seat; teacher told Choi to go next; Choi started by telling name of animal; other students laughed when Choi said that octopus was delicious food; all students looked at Choi as they listened to her

→ Yuki looked at her booklet as Choi still talked; all students followed what teacher said when teacher told students to look at map in Choi's booklet

11:58 → Yuki and Enrique read their booklet while others looked at Choi as they listened to Choi talked about her animal; Yuki sometimes looked at Choi as Choi talked; Kim talked to Enrique

→ teacher said something about octopus and laughed; Choi laughed as she heard what teacher said

11:59 → Choi continued to talk about her animal; Cheng looked at Kim and Enrique; Yuki still looked at her booklet; only teacher and Akiko looked at Choi as Choi kept talking

→ Yuki sat back and looked at Choi as Choi still talked about her animal; Cheng smiled as she listened to what Kim and Enrique talked to each other; then Cheng looked at Choi; Choi laughed as she talked about her animal

→ Choi finished talking; Yuki smiled when teacher told students that they did a good job; Enrique looked at teacher as teacher talked; Kim wrote something on paper; Enrique looked at Kim's paper

12:00 → teacher talked about pot luck on next day; Cheng, Yuki, Choi, and Akiko looked at teacher as they listened to what teacher said; Kim and Enrique talked to each other

→ class finishes

APPENDIX G: BAR GRAPH OF STUDENTS' CLASS ATTENDANCE
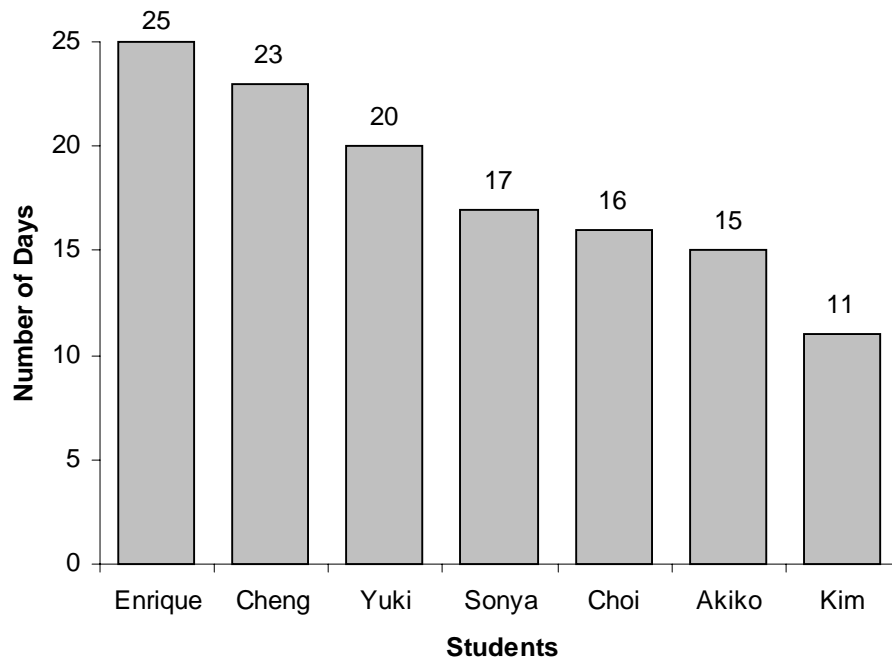
Figure 5   **Students' class attendance**

APPENDIX H: OVERALL RESULT OF CLASS OBSERVATION

The percentages of different classroom events obtained from the class observation are presented in Table H-1. The entire number of occurrences added up 2,017 for the total of 15 categories. The findings revealed that the sixth category, students paying attention to the listening texts (n = 753), accounted for the greatest amount (38%) of the total classroom events. It happened nearly eight times than students not paying attention to the speaker or the listening material (5%, n = 97).

The second category, students answering to teacher's questions (n = 304), was another classroom event with a high number of occurrences; this category added up 15% of the total class activities. The other major classroom event was students following teacher's directions (n = 209); this category represented 10% of the entire classroom occurrences. The addition (25%, n = 513) of occurrences that students following teacher's instructions (10%, n = 209) and students answering questions (15%, n = 304) represented 12 times than the event that students not answering questions / not following instructions (2%, n = 45). Additionally, the occurrences that students answering to the teacher's questions (15%, n = 304) happened 7.5 times than students asking questions (2%, n = 47) and 5 times than students giving comment (3%, n = 53) about the listening materials.

Tables H-2, H-3, and H-4 then present the numbers and the percentages of classroom occurrences for each category and each participant in the study.

Table H-1   Overall Result of Class Observation

Categories	N	Percentages
1 - Followed instruction	209	10
2 - Answered questions	304	15
3 - Not answered question / not followed instructions	45	2
4 - Nodded / shook head as listening	148	7
5 - Smiled / laughed as listening	88	4
6 - Paid attention as listening to speaker	753	38
7 - Took notes or wrote down answers	103	5
8 - Used dictionary to check meanings	97	5
9 - Asked questions about material	47	2
10 - Repeated words after teacher	17	1
11 - Underlined materials	18	1
12 - Looked somewhere as someone was speaking	97	5
13 - Gave comment or said something	53	3
14 - Helped classmate with words	14	1
15 - Talked to classmate	24	1
Total	*2,017*	*100*

Table H-2   Overall Numbers of Occurrences

	Akiko	Cheng	Choi	Enrique	Kim	Sonya	Yuki	Class	*Total*
*1	27	31	20	47	14	25	21	24	*209*
2	10	70	23	79	15	47	49	11	*304*
3	3	2	5	8	1	3	5	18	*45*
4	12	26	21	29	3	24	20	13	*148*
5	9	15	5	28	1	9	13	8	*88*
6	78	138	70	158	39	120	96	54	*753*
7	11	14	10	15	9	29	11	4	*103*
8	19	16	15	11	5	3	21	7	*97*
9	3	11	3	8	6	7	8	1	*47*
10	0	1	3	6	1	4	1	1	*17*
11	3	5	3	0	0	7	0	0	*18*
12	3	9	12	41	6	10	14	2	*97*
13	2	10	1	8	4	7	18	3	*52*
14	1	2	1	1	1	5	3	0	*14*
15	0	2	2	12	3	3	1	1	*24*
Total	*181*	*352*	*194*	*451*	*108*	*303*	*281*	*147*	*2,017*

* 1 = Following instructions
    2 = Answering questions
    3 = Not answering questions / not following instructions
    4 = Nodding / shaking head as listening
    5 = Smiling / laughing as listening
    6 = Paying attention as listening
    7 = Taking notes / writing down answers
    8 = Using dictionary to check word definition
    9 = Asking questions about material
  10 = Repeating words after teacher
  11 = Underlining material as listening
  12 = Looking somewhere as someone speaking
  13 = Giving comment or saying something about material
  14 = Helping classmate with words
  15 = Talking to classmate

Table H-3   Percentages of Occurrence for each Category across Students

	Akiko	Cheng	Choi	Enrique	Kim	Sonya	Yuki	Class	*Total*
*1	13	15	10	22	7	12	10	11	*100%*
2	3	23	8	26	5	15	16	4	*100%*
3	7	4	11	18	2	7	11	40	*100%*
4	8	18	14	19	2	16	14	9	*100%*
5	10	17	6	32	1	10	15	9	*100%*
6	10	18	9	22	5	16	13	7	*100%*
7	11	14	10	14	9	27	11	4	*100%*
8	20	16	15	11	5	3	23	7	*100%*
9	6	24	6	17	13	15	17	2	*100%*
10	0	6	18	34	6	24	6	6	*100%*
11	17	28	17	0	0	38	0	0	*100%*
12	3	9	12	43	6	10	15	2	*100%*
13	4	19	2	15	8	13	33	6	*100%*
14	7	14	7	7	7	37	21	0	*100%*
15	0	8	8	50	13	13	4	4	*100%*

* 1 = Following instructions
2 = Answering questions
3 = Not answering questions / not following instructions
4 = Nodding / shaking head as listening
5 = Smiling / laughing as listening
6 = Paying attention as listening
7 = Taking notes / writing down answers
8 = Using dictionary to check word definition
9 = Asking questions about material
10 = Repeating words after teacher
11 = Underlining material as listening
12 = Looking somewhere as someone speaking
13 = Giving comment or saying something about material
14 = Helping classmate with words
15 = Talking to classmate

Table H-4   Percentages of Occurrence for each Student across Categories

	Akiko	Cheng	Choi	Enrique	Kim	Sonya	Yuki	Class
*1	14	9	10	10	13	8	7	16
2	6	20	11	18	13	16	18	7
3	2	1	3	2	1	1	2	12
4	7	7	10	6	3	8	7	9
5	5	4	3	6	1	3	5	5
6	42	38	35	36	35	40	35	37
7	6	4	5	3	8	10	4	3
8	10	5	8	2	5	1	7	5
9	2	3	2	2	6	2	3	1
10	0	0	2	1	1	1	0	1
11	2	1	2	0	0	2	0	0
12	2	3	6	9	6	3	5	1
13	1	3	1	2	4	2	6	2
14	1	1	1	0	1	2	1	0
15	0	1	1	3	3	1	0	1
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

* 1 = Following instructions
   2 = Answering questions
   3 = Not answering questions / not following instructions
   4 = Nodding / shaking head as listening
   5 = Smiling / laughing as listening
   6 = Paying attention as listening
   7 = Taking notes / writing down answers
   8 = Using dictionary to check word definition
   9 = Asking questions about material
  10 = Repeating words after teacher
  11 = Underlining material as listening
  12 = Looking somewhere as someone speaking
  13 = Giving comment or saying something about material
  14 = Helping classmate with words
  15 = Talking to classmate

APPENDIX I: SELF-EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

(1)   What percentage of a typical conversation with a native speaker do you
        understand
        (less than half,   more than half,   all of it)?

(2)   What percentage of a typical listening comprehension exercise in class do you
        understand
        (less than half,   more than half,   all of it)?

(3)   Are you generally able to guess the meanings of what you hear?

On the basis of these questions, give yourself a rating on *listening* (circle one):
        1.   Doing just find, about where I should be
        2.   Not too bad, nothing to worry about
        3.   Serious problems

APPENDIX J: LEARNING STRATEGY QUESTIONNAIRE

Please read each statement and answer in terms of <u>how well the statement describes you</u>. Do not answer how you think you <u>should</u> be, or what <u>other</u> people do. Give a response (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) that tells how true of you the statement is.

> 1. The statement is <u>very rarely</u> true.
> 2. The statement is true <u>less than half the time</u>.
> 3. The statement is true <u>about half the time</u>.
> 4. The statement is true <u>more than half the time</u>.
> 5. The statement is true <u>almost always</u>.

- I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
- I create a mental image of what I heard.
- I watch English language TV shows spoken in English.
- I listen to popular songs on the radio.
- I try not to translate word-for-word.
- To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
- I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
- I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
- If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.
- I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

APPENDIX K: ANOVA FOR LEARNING STRATEGY USE

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to determine a significant variation in mean strategy use across the students in this study (total mean = 3.53, total SD = 1.24). The results, presented in Table K-1, indicated no significant difference among the means ($\underline{F}$ < 1). The significance level was set at $\underline{p}$ < .05.

Table K-1   Results of One-way ANOVA for Mean Strategy Use

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Students	6	5.14	.86	<1*
Within	63	96.30	1.53	
Total	69	101.44		

* $\underline{p}$ < .05

	Cheng	*Yuki*	*Akiko*	*Choi*	*Kim*	*Enrique*	*Sonya*
Age	24	25	29	26	25	16	38
Gender	female	female	female	female	male	male	female
Home country	China	Japan	Japan	Korea	Korea	Puerto Rico	Brazil
Native language	Chinese	Japanese	Japanese	Korean	Korean	Spanish	Portuguese
Years of English	15	6	7	7	7	12	8
Skills learned	Grammar reading writing	Grammar reading writing	Grammar reading writing	Grammar reading writing	Grammar reading writing	Grammar reading writing	Grammar reading writing
Listening practice	Language lab in high school and university	Rarely	Language lab in high school	Language lab in university	Language lab in university	Limited	Never
Listening materials	Recorded conver. & passages by natives of English	N/A	Recorded stories by natives of English	Recorded words and passages by natives of English	Recorded conver. & passages by natives of English	Basically English spoken by teachers	N/A
Teachers	Chinese using Chinese & some English	Japanese using only Japanese	Japanese using only Japanese	Koreans using only Korean	Koreans using only Korean	Puerto Ricans using Spanish & English	Brazilians using only Portuguese

	Cheng	*Yuki*	*Akiko*	*Choi*	*Kim*	*Enrique*	*Sonya*
Purpose in U.S.	Staying with husband	Taking intensive English	Doing research project	Staying with husband	Attending grad program	Attending undergrad program	Staying with family
Months in U.S.	2	5	1.5	5	6	2	9
Why taking class?	Using & improving English	Learning English	Improving English	Improving English	Preparing for academic	Preparing for academic	Improving English
Listen to teacher	Understand very well	Usually understand	Understand mostly	Understand but not clearly	Understand very well	Understand very well	Understand mostly
Listen to mini-lectures	Somewhat understand	Understand about half	Not understand without reading the script	Understand a little	Understand about half	Understand	Understand
Listen to native speakers	Understand quite well	Have to listen very carefully to understand	Almost unable to understand	Have difficulties	Somewhat understand Have difficulties	Somewhat understand	Have difficulties
Natures of problems	Fast speech rate, slang	Fast speech rate, slang	Fast speech rate, vocab	Fast speech rate, vocab, accent	Fast speech rate, vocab, accent, culture	Fast speech rate, vocab	Fast speech rate, vocab, accent
Listening ability at end of program	Better than beginning; understand more	Much better than beginning	Very limited	Better than beginning	Better than beginning	Better than beginning	Better than beginning

APPENDIX M: PROBLEMS IN DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

The researcher had experienced some problems and limitations during the data collection process. The researcher made an initial contact with the director of the language institute in order to get permission for an access to collect data in an ESL listening class offered that semester. The director of the language institute approved of the researcher's request to observe and videotape the class for the entire semester. Without having a chance to directly contact the teacher who was going to teach the class, the researcher was later informed by the director of a denial, by the teacher, of the researcher's presence in the classroom, with a reason that it would intrude the teaching and learning process. Nevertheless, the researcher was permitted to observe the High-Intermediate Academic Listening and Vocabulary Development class. The researcher then had to negotiate with the director of the language institute about videotaping the class activities. At this time, the researcher was granted permission to videotape only one class of the entire semester.

Since the researcher had to lose time on the process of getting permission, she was unable to start the class observation until the second week of the seven-week class. Another week was then spent on getting familiarized by the students in the class and getting a consent form signed by those who were willing to participate in the research study. The researcher finally had only five weeks left for observing the class activities. Also, there was a limitation in the communication process between the researcher and the students. The language barrier played an important part during the interview process in which significant information was drawn upon. Having limited proficiency in the target language, English, and not knowing each other's native language, the researcher and the students sometimes had difficulty understanding each other.

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