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The effects of a situated-demonstration-based listening strategy instruction initiative on the development of EFL listening comprehension skills

by

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Abstract

Listening comprehension is an important part of language learning, and language learning strategies (LLS) are the behaviors or actions that can contribute to a more successful, self-directed language learning. In the research into language learning strategies, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) focus on language learning processes. Oxford (1990) talks about what teachers should know to help students become more active, self-directed and effective learners. Griffiths (2007) focusses on knowledge of strategies that is important for teachers. However, we know little about the teachers' role in developing the language learning strategies that help students with their listening comprehension improvement. In this intervention study, the involvement of teachers in the intervention design is central. It is a situated-demonstration approach to listening strategy instruction, where the teacher demonstrates strategies rather than tells students what to do.

Based on the SILL (Oxford, 1990), the researcher collaborated with the experimental group's teacher to design a booklet which guided the teacher in demonstrating listening strategies within routine listening tasks. An experimental group of 74 students underwent the programme lasting 3 months. The control group (n=72), taught by a similarly experienced teacher in another university, had a conventional listening comprehension programme. The impact of the situated-demonstration approach to listening strategy instruction on English listening comprehension performance was measured by tests, self-reports on strategy use, and self-efficacy questionnaires. All the students were given reference numbers in order to track their progress, and their experience across the data sets. As hypothesized, the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on the final comprehension measure after controlling for initial variables. In addition, the quantitative results of the questionnaire provide the further details of the most frequently used metacognitive and cognitive strategies that underpinned successful L2 listening. Moreover, the outcome of the innovative strategy instruction was also found to contribute to the development of self-efficacy, and to

higher perceived value of the listening comprehension training in the experimental group.

This study is one of the first that is embedded in and integrated into the teacher's work and regular classroom materials. It suggests that it is important to research classroom practices and teachers in developing the potential of our understanding of language learning strategy development and use (not just student awareness and attitudes). Moreover, it emphases the importance of teacher education and development for the LLS in the curriculum. Students may not benefit from LLS training separate from classroom teaching, as much as from an LLS focus as part of the normal teaching activity of teachers.

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I declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction

‘English listening comprehension’ has become one of the most essential studies in the field of English education as well as in the area of learning strategy (Wang & Zhou, 2013; Ni, 2008; Li &Wang, 2012). It is meaningful to look at how listening strategies relate to effective listening, students’ self-efficacy development, and how they influence English listening comprehension through teaching practices. The language is learned when it is understood, so having good listening skills promotes second language learning and second language acquisition. Listening comprehension is one of the most important parts of language learning, and language-learning strategies are ‘behaviors or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable’ (Oxford, 1989, 235). Since it has the potential to not only enhance the listening comprehension of listeners (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford & Leaver, 1996), but to also benefit the relationship between the listening proficiency and listeners’ self-efficacy development (Li &Wang, 2012; Amin, Aly & Amin, 2011). The main purpose of this research is to explore the effects of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instructions, wherein the teacher does not just tell students what to do but shows how and when to apply listening strategies while listening. This research aims to understand how it could influence students’ listening proficiency, how to construct learners’ English learning attitudes and perceived-value of listening comprehension training. The present research was conducted as an experimental research over a period of three months, based mainly on the language learning strategies provided by Oxford (1991) in order to explore the effects of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instructions. It draws attention to Chinese undergraduate students who are English majors in China, and it investigates how ‘situated-demonstration’ (Irvine-Niakaris & Kiely, 2015) by the teacher of how strategies can facilitate listening comprehension, strategy awareness and students’ learning self-efficacy (Gu, 2013; Goh & Taib, 2006).

As Anderson (2005) demonstrated, strategies are ‘the conscious actions that learners take to improve their language learning’ (p: 757). In fact, there are numerous studies investigating the explicit strategy-based instruction (Guan, 2014;

Goh,2018; Alharbi, 2015; Anderson, 2005; Chen, 2009; Griffths & Parr, 2001; Goh & Taib, 2006; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford & Leavers, 1996; Moradi, 2013; Yeldham, 2009;). Chamot (1990:499) notes that 'direct instruction is linked to the memories length of over time and their transfer to new task'. In other words, in the real strategy teaching class, explicit instruction not only asks students to use strategies, but also contributes to fostering metacognition (serving as the direct way to encourage students to be active in their studies), and helping students understand what they are learning about and the learning process (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford & Leaver, 1996). However, in the case of Chinese undergraduate students, the curriculum development which has happened in schools and in city areas, although not in rural areas, emphasises reproduction of texts. Once they reach university, they are less prepared. Nevertheless, most of the students have not yet been qualified as good listeners, they have a limited understanding of listening strategies as there are fewer opportunities for them to take listening training courses. For example, receiving the training of direct and demonstrated listening strategy instruction in a specific listening task (Wang et al, 2010). In addition, the content of such training lessons and explicit strategy instruction for students are varied, sometimes hardly meeting the students' needs and interests (Wang, 2005).However, there is little research regarding these issues, so it may be necessary to explore this issue and build on it with more empirical studies, especially the exploration of an effective method of listening strategy instruction for English language learners.

Young (1993) suggests that instructors should select situations that will engage the learner in complex, realistic, problem-centered activities that will support the desired knowledge to be acquired. Situated learning focus on the idea that 'much of what is learned is specific to the situation in which it is learned' (Lave, 1988; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Reder, Anderson and Simon, 1996). Accordingly, I want to investigate the extent to which situated-demonstration of listening strategy instructions by teachers is an effective way to help students understand and get straightforward ideas about how to use listening strategies to enhance their English language learning.

However, the number of studies that focus on situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction for listeners is smaller compared with that of explicit listening strategy instruction, although situated learning is recommended in several studies (e.g. Anderson et al, 1996; Choi & Hannafin, 1995; Resnick, 1987; Cobb & Bower, 1999; Korthagen, 2010). Therefore, situated-demonstration of listening strategy instructions should be explored and implemented in the particular English listening trainings through actual teaching practice so that they can be tailored to different situations. Further, listening strategy instruction and learner autonomy are always connected (Gu, 2013; Maftoon, 2015; Mareschal, 2007). Accordingly, besides investigating the effects of situated demonstrated listening strategy instruction on listening comprehension performance, it is worth examining the outcome of this innovative strategy instruction, for example, how does it influence students' self-efficacy development and their attitudes toward the listening comprehension training.

1.2 Conceptual foundation

This study aims to explore students' listening comprehension performances with the instructions of situated-demonstration of listening strategy. In order to investigate the effects of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction, I employ both qualitative and quantitative methodologies as my data collection and epistemological orientation. To explore students' listening performance, the numerical data from pre- and post-test are analyzed by SPSS. A questionnaire of listening strategy and self-efficacy may present a variety of students' attitude to listening training and the frequency of students' use of listening strategies as well as students' self-efficacy, since language learning is often connected to self-efficacy development. In order to find out the students' internal cognitive process of listening comprehension, verbal report provided by the students while listening can be seen as a useful lens (Cohen & Scott, 1996). Moreover, it is important to listen to students' opinions of listening strategy training, as it reveals the actual learning of students, how listening strategy training constructs their learning attitudes and self-efficacy, and to what extent listening comprehension training shape their perceived value of listening comprehension training. The field notes of observation and teachers' interviews provide the confirmatory data to this research, which may provide different perspectives to explain or support both qualitative and quantitative findings for example, the reasons of certain strategy

use by students, interventional research design from teachers' perspective. These are the reasons why a mixed method is widely used to understand the complexity of listening performance, listening strategy instruction and learners' self-efficacy development. This will be explained further in the following chapters.

1.3 Personal Interests

As noted earlier, this experimental research mainly investigates listening strategy training in the Chinese context in part, because there are some reasons (e.g. the current phenomenon of listening curriculum arrangement; issues of listening teaching) that motivate this research. Due to the influence of examination-oriented education, teachers in high school often ignore the importance of listening training, as listening comprehension is not tested or added into the total scores of the national college entrance examination in most Chinese provinces. Compared with listening training, teachers often spend more time helping students achieve higher scores through grammar, vocabulary and reading practice (Yin, 2009). This neglect of listening training brings into question the nature of English language teaching and learning, and whether or not high achievement in English tests truly reflects English language ability. Are the students really satisfied with their high-marked paper work with little care about practical language skills? I used to be a Chinese undergraduate student at a Chinese university, as well as an intern teacher; I have experienced how students feel when they are struggling due to poor listening comprehension, and how and why we need to improve students' strategy awareness from the perspectives of teacher.

A range of studies (Wang et al, 2010; Young, 2008; Wang & Zhou, 2013; Ni, 2008; Li &Wang, 2012) explore listening training and strategy-based listening strategy instruction in the university setting. However, there are mainly two factors which reflect practical issues of listening teaching that negatively influence listening training, for example: 1) large size of class setting makes it difficult for teachers to fulfil every student training needs and provide extra time and individual guidance to students (Wang, 2005); 2) different knowledge backgrounds, listening strategy use awareness and learning motivation of students, they all lead to individual differences in listening performance (Yin, 2009; Hu, 2014; Wang, 2005). These studies also remind me of my personal English learning experience, as well as that

of other students'. School students, especially rural school students work very hard on their English. For example, they get up at 5:30am every morning to recite examined English knowledge; however, they suffer from their weak English listening comprehension. These perspectives from the literature and personal learning experience lead me to think about ways in which we can assist students with listening comprehension improvement. Gradually, I have studied the listening related theories, listening difficulties, ideas of listening strategy instructions, and then completed my Master's dissertation. After this process, I realized that there may be a potential for research that focus on the effects of listening strategy instructions. Compared with other studies (Cohen, 2007; White, 2006; Beckman, 2002; Paris &Paris, 2004), the listening strategy instruction with situated demonstrated is designed in this study. In other words, the teacher in this research is showing students how and when to apply listening strategies in listening tasks and, at the same time, sharing personal learning experience as a way of demonstrating.

1.4 Contextual background

1.4.1 Undergraduate students- English majors in China

At the beginning of this research, data was collected the background of students from the bureau of national statistics, for national statistics published in 2012, which shows 59.1% (6.85 million) of new university entrants in the academic year 2012 were from a rural background. In 2015, there was a similar situation, when research data was collected for this study, in Lanzhou, China; 5 out of 146 English majors were of an urban background, while 141 students were of a rural background. In other words, the participants with a rural education background take up the largest percent in this study. Considering the validity and reliability of this study, I invited the students from two universities to form two groups, experimental group (EG) and control group (CG). These students could be considered to have similar English knowledge background and mental abilities, as these two universities share similar entry requirements under the same National Universities Entrance Exam Syllabus. According to the national curriculum guidelines and national teaching requirements of listening, both group of students are required to attend listening trainings once a week (2 hours) with different

listening textbooks but the same teaching standards and objectives. Table 1.1 presents differences and similarities between two groups as follow:

Table 1- 1 The information of two groups

Groups	Numbers & Backgrounds	Listening training time	Listening training methods	Listening training textbook
Experimental group (EG)	71 with rural background; 3 city background students	2 hours per week, 3months total	Situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction	*Listen to this*
Control group (CG)	70 with rural background; 2 city background students	2 hours per week, 3months	Conventional listening training	New standard college English

1.4.2 English teachers in China

The role of the teacher is emphasized in the study as well, as teachers often help students to learn and use learning strategies more effectively and encourage students to become independent learners and be more responsible for their learning (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; White, 2006). The teachers of listening comprehension training in two groups were invited to participate respectively. They are experienced (teaching English listening more than 10 years), very cooperative teachers who express higher interests in this study. The teacher A in EG participated highly in this research, not only participating with the interventional booklet design but also giving situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction in the experimental group. Teacher B in CG mainly carried out intensive listening for students wherein they listen to the same tasks several times with different purposes and perspectives to achieve better listening comprehension of listening materials. The involvement of teachers is a novel aspect of this research; a lot of language learning strategy research involves the researcher and students through surveys, observations and interviews. This study differs by having an intervention: I worked with the teacher in designing and implementing the situated-demonstration of listening strategies.

1.5 Research questions

This study focuses on the effect of situated listening strategy instruction, its impact on students' language learning self-efficacy development and perceived value of listening comprehension training. It examines how situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction benefits students in the Chinese undergraduate context through listening strategy framework, using both quantitative and qualitative methodologies. I have two main questions with 5 sub-questions:

1. How does situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction affect listening comprehension performance and development?
   1a. To what extent does situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction contribute to the development of listening comprehension?
   1b. How are learners with different listening abilities similar or different in their listening processing?
   1c. What are the most frequently used listening strategies employed by the undergraduate students?
2. In what ways does the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction affect the students' attitudes towards listening comprehension?
   2a. To what extent does the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction affect learners' self-efficacy (motivation, attitude, beliefs) development?
   2b. To what extent does the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction affect the students' perceived value of English listening comprehension training?

There are two main research questions, which investigate the effect of listening strategy instruction, and explore the relationships between the listening comprehension strategy instruction and learners' listening learning attitudes and performance. Each of these questions separately tries to explore different perspectives of this research by different instruments. For example, within the first main questions, question 1a is investigating the effect of listening comprehension strategy instruction through comparing the scores of two tests; by analyzing students' verbal report, question 1b is necessary to see how do the students in two groups apply listening strategies; question 1c explores the

understandings of the differences in the patterns of responses to listening strategy use. Additionally, questions 2a and 2b are respectively finding out the outcome of the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction on students, especially learners' self-efficacy development and the impact on learners' perceived value of listening comprehension training (question 2b).

1.6 Overview of the research design

In order to answer these research questions, I apply quantitative and qualitative approach as a mixed methodology enables greater insight into the process of listening (e.g. Cutrone, 2005; Vandergrift, 2007), because 'these methods are more labor-intensive' (Vandergrift, 2007:193). I take into account the four characteristics of qualitative research: locally situated, participant-oriented, holistic, and inductive (Kiely, 2009), as well as the numerical data analysis of quantitative research to carry out the whole study.

This study tends to focus more on the effects of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction, accordingly, there is an experimental group and a control group. Based on Oxford's (1990) framework of learning strategies, a booklet of demonstrated listening strategy instruction is also designed with the characters of situated learning for instructional design. The booklet has the following features: '1) provide articulation to enable tacit knowledge to be made explicit; 2) provide access to expert performances and the modeling of processes; 3) provide authentic context that reflects the way the knowledge will be used in real-life' (Herrington & Oliver, 1995:3). This booklet is applied in the listening training for the experimental group students for 3 months, at the same time, the students in control group receive conventional listening training. The whole process of listening training in experimental group is observed and noted for the purpose of adding more detailed information for the qualitative analysis.

1.6.1 Data collection methods and instruments

As instruments of this study, many different tools have been used. They are: 1) booklet of listening strategy instructions, 2) pre/post-test, 3) questionnaire, 4) verbal report, 5) interviews and 6) field notes. Since the reliability of research can be enhanced 'when data from more than one source that are triangulated to demonstrate a more complete picture of the construct under investigation' (Vandergrift, 2007:193).

1) an instruction booklet as a guidance for teachers to list and explain how and when to demonstrate and apply listening strategies in individual listening tasks. 2) listening test scores on the pre/post-tests can be used to 'assign a level of L2 listening proficiency and correlated with the scores of other instruments that measure variables hypothesized to influence L2 listening success' (Vandergrift, 2007:192). 3) a questionnaire survey helps to gain general information such as ideas of listening training, listening strategy application and source of self-efficacy information. 4) verbal report as a series of listening comprehension stories that the students would like to share with me, mainly about their listening process and how they get the answers while listening. 5) retrospective interviews of 16 students with different listening proficiency levels (8 in each group with higher, medium or lower level) and 2 teachers express their thought and opinion in terms of the whole listening training and listening strategy instructions, which provides an opportunity to clarify meaning or help the researcher to advance the conversation (Vandergrift, 2007). The reason why I choose to do 6) the observation notes is because it reveals and reflects a real teaching situation in the class, mainly to allow the researcher to observe whether the teacher in EG carrying out the listening strategy instructions is the same as the booklet design or if there is an unexpected teaching method in the class. Also, the field notes I recorded provide additional information to supplement the whole story of listening strategy instruction. In order to reduce the possibility of misunderstandings, all the questionnaires and interviews are carried out in Chinese. Depending on the participants' preference, the verbal report can be written in Chinese or English for the purpose of clarity (see chapter three).

1.6.2 Time Frame for the Data Collection

The academic year in China normally starts from September every year, with the first-year undergraduate students' courses beginning in the middle of September. With a consideration of teaching timetable and my research schedule, I contacted the listening teacher in July 2015 for the booklet design and corrections. Since this research is delivered on students' listening training courses (compulsory course) in the university, students to some extent have to be involved in the study. Fortunately, students were willing to participate. After a pilot study in June with some minor corrections, the main study was carried out from October 2015 to January 2016. Table1-2 shows a rough sketch of the data collection procedure.

Table 1- 2 Research methods

Instruments	Ss in EG	Ss in CG	T in EG	T in CG	R	Time to carry out
Pre/post-tests	√	√				Beginning of Oct2015/ beginning of Jan 2016
Questionnaire	√	√				After pre-test for the 1st time; after post-test for the 2nd time
Verbal report	√	√				Between each listening task while listening
Interview	8 Ss	8 Ss	√	√		End of Dec 2015
Field notes					√	14th Oct - 21 Dec

*Ss=students; T=teacher; EG=experimental group; CG=control group;

R= researcher

1.7 Significance of this study

This research proposes to investigate the effects of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instructions on learners' listening performance, self-efficacy as well as the attitudes towards English listening comprehension training. It aims to do this through a combination between quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. I hope this research project contributes to not only expanding our view about listening strategy instruction methods, but also sheds some light on the needs of listening comprehension improvement of EFL in China and provides some motivation for revising the listening training curriculum, thinking about the importance of practical language skills training in the English teaching area. Drawing on the learners' self-efficacy, I would like to demonstrate how the Chinese

students benefit from this innovative strategy instruction in terms of enhancing their self-efficacy development and attitudes towards perceived-value of listening comprehension training in this research. In addition, I hope this intervention study will raise attention to the teachers' role in developing the understanding of language learning strategy as a key place for the development of LLS in the curriculum is in teacher education and development.

1.8 Organization of the thesis

Following the introduction (Chapter one), I present a literature review to introduce conceptual framework and theoretical orientations. As for the conceptual framework, I refer to the concept of listening, listening comprehension process, teaching of listening and learning attitudes. The theoretical orientations of this study would be shown through the concepts of language learning strategies and strategy application in listening comprehension. Chapter three looks at research methods and illustrates quantitative and qualitative research instruments and the procedure of data collection and methods in detail.

Findings and answers to the research questions would be presented in three different chapters, and in chapter four, I would discuss to what extent situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction contributes to the students' listening comprehension performance, and how it benefit students with different listening proficiency levels by the paired and independent t-tests results of SPSS. Moreover, quantitative findings of field notes to explain or correspond to the results of listening comprehension performance in the tests are presented. Chapter five reports the results of five-Likert questionnaires for both experimental and control groups, which includes the perceived-value of listening comprehension training, highlights the most frequently used listening strategies by Chinese students and students' self-efficacy development. Chapter six looks at the findings of two groups' students' verbal reports, which shows if there are any differences, similarities, or developments in listening strategy use and listening processing among students with different listening proficiency levels. It also provides an insightful view of perceived-value of listening comprehension training from students' interviews. Chapter seven is a discussion chapter that focuses on the

results related issues of this study, it also provides the teachers' perspective of the interventional research design and its application in the teachers' practices. Chapter seven is a conclusion chapter that reviews the content of whole thesis in each chapter and provides the findings to answer research questions. At the same time, it discusses the limitations and contributions of the study, and gives some suggestions for the future study.

1.9 Summary

This Chapter has provided an introduction to the study. It offers a general view of the research design. Background research was highlighted at the beginning of the chapter; the aims of the study were presented afterwards. The outline of the study has been presented in 1.3) personal interests of research, 1.4) contextual background,1.5) research questions, 1.6) overview of the research design. The significance of the study was also addressed in 1.7. Finally, this chapter illustrated an overview of the organization of the study by introducing the main content of each chapter throughout the whole study.

Chapter 2 Literature review

2.1 Introduction

The general concept of listening in everyday life tends to be associated with hearing. It is a process of receiving spoken messages and comprehending the meaning. Listening plays an important role in communication and in language acquisition (Anderson & Lynch, 1988; Berquist, 2017; Nguyen & Newton, 2018). From the perspective of second language acquisition, listening is vital in the language classroom, because it provides input for the learner. 'Without understanding input at the right level, any learning simply cannot begin' (Rost, 1994: 141-142). Nation and Newton (2009:38) assert that 'listening gives the learner information from which to build up knowledge necessary for using the language; and when this knowledge is built up, the learner can begin to speak'. When we look more closely at listening comprehension from the perspective of 'listening being the basic language skill in language learning' (Numan, 1998:1), we find more about the importance of the development of listening comprehension, and the significance of listening comprehension in instructional methods (Vandergrift, 1999).

As listening comprehension involves various types of knowledge (e.g. linguistics knowledge) and complex processing of meaning, little knowledge of any of these could lead to listening difficulties for language learners. In this sense, in order to understand listening comprehension better and help learners to be proficient listeners, this chapter introduces an overview of listening from theoretical backgrounds. It begins with highlighting the definition of listening (2.2). Section 2.3 illustrates the theory of listening processing. Section 2.4 reviews the concept of the listening comprehension and its difficulties in second language learning, and learning strategies are introduced in the section 2.5. Section (2.6), specifies the classification of learning strategies from different scholars (e.g. Chamot et al, 1990; Oxford, 1990), reviews the learning strategy used in listening comprehension, and the empirical studies on the relationship between listening strategy instruction and listening comprehension improvement. This chapter also proposes the cocept of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction. Section 2.7 introduces the concept of attitude and self-efficacy. Section 2.8 shows

a closer relationship between the listening self-efficacy and language learners' performance. Section 2.9 provides evidence and several different perspectives, by examining empirical studies on self-efficacy and listening. The concept of the situated demonstration has been introduced and highlighted in 2.10.

2.2 The definition of listening

Listening is a word that people use probably every minute, in a variety of situations in daily life and professional contexts without giving it much thought. In despite of this, it is difficult to find an accurate conceptual definition of listening. The term 'listening' still remains a real mystery; as there is no consensus on what the term refers to. Some listening concepts are identified in terms of their linguistic features (e.g. Buck, 2001; Rost, 2002), such as 'listening ranges in meaning from sound discrimination to aural comprehension (i.e. actual understanding of the spoken language)' (Postovsky, 1975:19). Listening plays an increasing role in language learning classrooms, as students received between 57% to 90% of instructions through listening (Wolvin & Coakley, 1996; Oxford, 1993). Second language acquisition research has provided a major boost to listening. As Nunan (2002) highlights, listening provides input for the learner, any learning simply begins with understanding input at the right level, listening is thus fundamental to speaking. Spoken language provides a means of interaction for the learner, since learners must interact to achieve understanding, access to speakers of the language is essential. Moreover, learners' failure to understand the language they hear is an impetus, not an obstacle, to interaction and learning (Rost,1994:141-142);

Wolvin and Coakley (1996) summarized that compared to other forms of verbal communication, people participated in listening comprehension. Birds (1983) found that in the total verbal communication time of female college students, these students spent 25 percent speaking, 15 percent reading, 18 percent writing and 42 percent listening. Another study conducted by Baker et al. (1980) confirmed Birds' view of the importance of listening, and presented a similar conclusion that listening takes up the greatest percentage (52.5%) of students' verbal communication time, followed by 17.3 percent reading, 16.3% speaking and 13.9 percent writing. Listening plays an important role in the lives of students

throughout all levels of educational development (Coakley & Wolvin, 1997; Wing, 1986).

2.3 Theories of listening processing

Listening comprehension is regarded as an active process. As listeners must be selective (e.g. use aural input) to make sense of the input and interpret (associate with knowledge) to decipher the meaning that speakers intend to convey. Rumelhart (1980:34) describes schema as 'a data structure for representing the generic concepts stored in memory. It can be used to represent our knowledge about all concepts: those underlying objects, situations, events, sequences of events, actions and sequences of actions'. As comprehension is identified as an information process by cognitive psychology, the schema is a guide in the comprehension process. Based on cognitive comprehension theory, listeners can use their knowledge of linguistics and situational cues to evoke schemata. If the schema is being evoked, it could become a guiding structure in comprehension (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). However, according to the principle of schema, there are two convincing models of information processing: bottom-up processing and top-down processing. These two processing models intersect to develop an interactive processing, and models of listening processes divide into three categories.

Many researchers and scholars (e.g. Richard, 1990; Buck, 2001; Goh & Vandergrift 2018; Yeldham, 2016; Vandergrift, L. 2015; Nguyen, & Abbott, M. 2017) have described the 'bottom up' process in listening. Bottom-up processing relates to the use of incoming input as the foundation for message understanding. It acknowledges that listening comprehension starts with decoding the sounds, from 'the smallest unit of the acoustic message: individual sounds, or phonemes' (Flowerdew & Miller2005: 24-27) to the words, then sentences until the intended meaning is arrived at. In other words, aural input is always decoded into the different smallest sound segments that carry meaning (phonemes) and this will be used for individual word identification. Then, processing comes to the stage of the semantic content analysis (e.g. understanding the basic linguistic meaning). Next, the listeners can interpret and combine linguistic meaning with the communicative

situation, in order to elicit meaning from the speaker. Meaning is the last step arrived in the whole process. Furthermore, the bottom-up process is closely connected with listeners' language knowledge. Listeners need to make use of 'knowledge of words, syntax, and grammar to work on form' (Rubin, 1994:210) in this process.

The top-down process raises the importance of background knowledge in comprehending the meaning of the information. Rost (2002: 96) describes the top-down process as 'a form of language processing that bases inferences on expectations and predictable generalizations cues by the incoming language'. It means that the listener actively tries to construct the meaning of the speaker employing new input as clues instead of receiving the meaning as it was assumed in the bottom-up aspect. In this process of constructing the meaning, the listener needs to combine the global expectations of language and words with prior knowledge in order to make predictions about the meaning of the incoming message. Most of these general predications are based on 'a higher level, general schemata' after which the listener 'then searches the input for information to fit into these practically satisfied, higher order schemata' (Carrell & Eistergold, 1983). Therefore, researchers posited 'higher level' pragmatic processes as a starting point, followed by the linguistics knowledge at the 'lower level' processing in the top-down approach.

Conversely, neither the bottom-up nor the top-down process is the most precise characterization of the listening process. An efficient comprehension is often related to the textual material of the listeners' previous knowledge and brain, therefore, only using the linguistic knowledge in bottom-up approach is very limited in helping listeners process incoming messages. Similarly, if the listener is unfamiliar with the listening materials, schemata cannot be invoked, even if the listeners can trigger a schema, it is not a schema expected by the speaker. Thus, 'only relying on top-down processing may result in the failure of comprehension' (Carrerll & Eisterhold, 1983: 557). According to analysis, it is necessary to employ an interactive model of listening, in which the listener 'draws simultaneously on different knowledge sources to interpret the meaning of a given message'

(Vandergrift, 1992: 176). The interactive model is a process that combines the bottom-up and top-down approaches and overcomes the disadvantages of both methods of processing to enhance listening comprehension. This theory aligns with, 'the interaction of top-down and bottom-up processes is likely to be both compensatory and confirmatory' (Graham & Macaro, 2008: 749).

2.4 Listening comprehension

Listening comprehension is 'matched in phonetic and psycholinguistic research by expressions such as speech understanding, spoken language understanding, speech recognition and speech perception' (Dirven & Oakeshott-Taylor, 1984:326). The learner 'receives input through listening to instructions or explanations prior to responding orally or in writing' (Bidabadi & Yamat, 2011: 26). In order to successfully understand the meaning of spoken language, listeners must comprehend oral input through combining their prior background knowledge of the world and that of the target language, (e.g. second language: English) (Byrnes, 1984; Young, 1997; Saito & Akiyama, 2018; Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016). Listeners are also required to recognize and construct own interpretations about the spoken information (Anderson &Lynch, 1988). In other words, as listeners try to comprehend their interpretation by matching what they have heard with their prior knowledge, they are more likely to be active processors of spoken messages (Young, 1997). Therefore, 'language understanding appears in an interactive context' (Rost, 1990:8) and is the result of interactions between different information sources, such as acoustic input, linguistics knowledge units, and various contexts from which any information is available to help listeners interpreting what a speaker has said (Buck, 2001).

Anderson (1983,1985) postulated that listening comprehension consists of these three interrelated and recursive processes: perceptual processing, parsing and utilization. Perceptual processing emphasizes that oral text and sounds are in the echoic memory (Loftus and Loftus, 1976). The main characteristics of echoic memory are that the specific words can only be retained no longer than a few

seconds, due to mental capacity limitations, and that the new information the listener hears replaces the former information immediately. While the oral text is in the memory, encoding processes may express the text in meaningful representations (Anderson, 1985). ‘Same factors in perceptual processing that focus attention on oral text to the exclusion of other competing stimuli in environment also focus attention selectively on certain key words or phrases that are important in the context’ (O’Malley, Chamot & Kupper, 1989:40).

In the second listening comprehension process, ‘parsing words and messages are used to construct meaningful mental representations’. Segmentation in listening comprehension may be presented syntactically, semantically and phonologically (Anderson, 1983,1985). Listeners’ knowledge of the language, general knowledge of the topic and how the information is presented, often decides the size of the unit or the segment of information (Richard, 1983). Thus, the process of parsing messages can be used in the original sequences of words in the memory; and this interpretation is a short abstraction of the original meaning, which is also helpful to understand the intended meaning.

The third comprehension process, utilization, includes both a mental representation of the textual meaning and prior knowledge. As Farch and Kasper (1986:264) note, ‘Comprehension takes place when input and knowledge are matched against each other’. As prior knowledge is stored in the long-term memory, it is activated to the degree that it is relevant to the new textual meanings in short-term memory (O’Malley, Chamot and kupper: 1989). Therefore, connections between the new textual meaning and prior knowledge are also important in listening comprehension.

The difficulties in L2 listening comprehension

Most people are able to learn their native language perfectly, and they perform to a higher communicative degree in a wide range of situations. Despite of this, only a portion of them become proficient second language users. Developing the second language ability to a satisfying a level of communicative competence is

achievable for most second language learners. Second language acquisition (SLA) research 'has made great strides in clarifying the important role of understanding spoken input and the function of listener-initiated interaction in language development' (Rost, 1990:16).

Listening is a 'complex, active process of interpretation', instead of 'extracting meaning from incoming speech' (Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). In order to achieve a high level of listening skills, listeners should be able to develop effective listening skills in several language learning contexts e.g. EAP setting (Ferris & Tagg, 1996). However, such effective listening skills cannot be developed easily. A range of studies (e.g. Goh, 2000; Hasan, 2010; Koriakin & Koriakin, 2016) present that listening is one of the most difficult practical skills that takes learners the longest time to make progress.

There are some obstacles in listening comprehension that often prevent learners from successful listening. In Rost's (1990) book, he lists the difficulties that listeners meet when they are in a listening test. He analyses the problems from three aspects: language problem, inferential problem and procedure problem. He believes the learners' language problems are mainly caused by their unfamiliar knowledge, e.g. phonetic, syntactic or lexical decoding problems. Moreover, inappropriate or inefficient strategy selection and inappropriate activation of background or contextual knowledge are the inferential problems that prevent some learners from being proficient listeners. Furthermore, in the process of listening, listeners often have no idea about what kind of response is expected in authentic listening texts, and what to do if the speakers have strong accents. Underwood (1989: 16) states 'many English language learners believe that the greatest difficulty with listening comprehension is that the listeners cannot control how quickly a speaker speaks'. The speed of delivery of texts may cause the listeners to miss vital words that lead to difficulty in understanding. Underwood also categorizes another six problems that relate to word problems, lack of contextual knowledge and insufficient listening skills development (Underwood, 1989). 1) Since the teachers often decide whether or not and when and what to repeat, it is difficult to make sure every student has understood every part of the

listening materials they have heard (Underwood, 1989: 17). Therefore, students may not practice completely and not meet their needs of listening comprehension improvement in the training class. 2) A limited vocabulary in the listening materials may influence listeners' understanding, as these unfamiliar words make it feel difficult to have a coherent idea about the speaker's message. 3) The third problem also associated with vocabulary is that most students wish to understand every word while listening. Once they fail to understand particular words or phrases, they will become discouraged and influenced by this failure. As a result, it may affect their performance in listening comprehension. 4) Although the nonverbal clues (e.g. facial expressions, gestures) in a conversation may be helpful sometimes, with a lack of contextual knowledge, listeners are only able to understand the surface meaning of the text; it is hard to comprehend the whole meaning of the passage. 5) One of most important listening comprehension skills developed by listeners is signal recognition. Signal words (e.g. secondly, then) in listening materials presenting as discourse markers in formal situations are essential, as they indicate speakers moving from one topic to the next. Due to lack of listening practice, some of the less proficient listeners in particular, miss these essential signals quite often. 6) The last problem is about the concentration time on listening material of listeners. Since listening in a second language requires enormous effort to follow the meaning, it is difficult for listeners to concentrate on listening materials for a long time. As a result, 'even the shortest break in attention can seriously impair comprehension' (Gilakhani & Ahmadi, 2011: 982).

Based on these difficulties of listening comprehension, the booklet design of listening strategy instruction should take these factors into consideration, as these may be common difficulties for the participants in my research. This paper will highlight what kind of listening strategies could be helpful to solving these problems and how to introduce them to reduce further negative obstacles.

2.5 Definition of learning strategies

Learning strategies play an important role in enhancing students' learning. Strategies are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which contribute to the development of communicative competence. 'Appropriate language learning

strategies result in improved proficiency in greater self-confidence' (Oxford, 1990:1). As Tarone (1981) notes, learning strategies are trying to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language (Faerch, 1983). According to Weinstein and Mayer (1986:315), the goal of strategy use is to 'affect the learner's motivational or affective state, or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge'. This general description of learning strategies might contain any of the following: paying attention to the selected new information, monitoring, organizing or elaborating on new information, and evaluating learning when it is completed (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). In 1987, Wenden and Rubin identified that learning strategies are 'any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learners to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information' (p22). It is also a necessary step or process to facilitate the 'acquisition, storage, and/or utilization of information' (Dansereau, 1985:210). Stern (1975: 45-48) identifies that a good language learner is self-monitoring of his/her language development, in other words, a good learning habit can be developed through applying appropriate learning strategies.

In order to present a clear definition of learning strategies, it would be useful to distinguish between language learning strategies and language learner strategies. As learners may use these strategies explicitly or implicitly, which largely depend on their degree of awareness, Chamot and O'Malley (1994:371) mentioned that 'learner strategies as strategies that students have developed to solve language problems'. For example, learners may figure out which strategies are more effective to their studies and apply them more. While learning strategies could be taught explicitly as part of instructions, these are always explicit in language learning. They are steps or actions consciously selected by learners to improve their learning of a second language (Cohen, 1999). 'All appropriate language learning strategies are all oriented toward the broad goal of communicative competence' (Oxford, 1990:8). As learning strategies contribute to helping learners participate actively in such authentic communication, it stimulates the growth of their communicative competence in general (Oxford, 1990:8).

‘Learning strategies are special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning, or retention of the information’ (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990:1). This concept is expanded so that ‘specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situation[s]’ (Oxford, 1990:8). Richard et.al (1992) agree that learners are able to have a better understanding and retention of new information through applying intentional behavior and thoughts. In 2003, Cohen identified that learning strategies are ‘conscious or semi-conscious thoughts and behaviors’ (p.280), because they are being used for the purpose of improving the understanding of knowledge and achieving target tasks. Likewise, Griffith (2008) presents the opinion that a language-learning strategy an activity which is consciously chosen by learners in order to manage their language learning. While the way strategy is used varied with cognitive style, ‘good/not good language learner’ (Reiss: 1981), could be studied in terms of these cognitive differences. It is suggested in this area of enquiry that the teacher should add teaching methodologies to cognitive type in the process of enhancing language learning (Wesche, 1981). For example, designing a more personal orientated approach might satisfy individual needs. The differences in cognitive style relate to strategy use. Cohen (1998:21) said that ‘language learning and language use strategies can have a major role in helping shift the responsibility for learning off the shoulders of the teachers and on to those of the learners’. By way of explanation, the language learners make personal decisions to approach language learning from different directions, if they have acknowledged the learning strategies. O’Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, and Kupper (1985) reported that advanced-level students used more strategies and employed more sophisticated strategies. ‘Successful and highly motivated learners adopted more strategies, especially those involving planning, evaluation, and monitoring. Less motivated pupils, on the others hand, employed a limited set of strategies and were less ready to act strategically’ (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007:15). According to Grenfell and Macaro (2007: 24-27), they summarize the broad claims of learning strategies as follows: 1) Strategies are important because they are associated with successful learning; 2) Strategies can be taught and learners, as a result, can develop more effective strategic behaviour; 3) Strategy use and achievement are inextricably linked.

2.6 The classification of learning strategies

Since the 1970s, classifications of strategies for language learning have been documented (Rubin, 1975; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990) with a view to 'boosting learning outcomes by empowering learners, poor achievers in particular, with strategies conducive to success' (Zhang &Goh, 2006:201). In 1981, Rubin proposed one of the earliest categories of learning strategies. She divided language-learning strategies into direct/indirect strategies that contribute to language learning. For example, direct strategies devoted to learning (e.g. classification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inference, deductive reasoning and practice). Indirect strategies mainly create opportunities for practice. Rubin's categories pay attention to the function of language-learning strategies. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) explored and classified learning strategies from the perspective of cognitive theory. They believed 'language is a complex cognitive skill that can be described with the context of cognitive theory' (O'Malley & Chamot. 1990:1). Learning strategies have been developed into three categories (metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social-affective strategies), which has been 'the most influential categorization adopted as the framework for investigating and categorizing strategies for learning specific skills' (Zhang & Goh, 2006:201). These categories of strategy mostly depend on 'their function or type of mental, social process involved in language learning' (e.g. Goh, 1998; Vandergrift, 1997; Gu, Hu & Zhang, 2009). While the taxonomy of Oxford is more 'comprehensive and detailed and systematically linked to individual strategies' (1990:14), which could be the theoretical background of my research design. The learning strategies are emphasized on two parts: direct strategies (e.g. memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies) and indirect strategies (e.g. metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies). The following discussion is about the language learning strategy taxonomies of O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990).

2.6.1 The taxonomy of O'Malley and Chamot

The category of O'Malley and Chamot was initially developed with ESL students (O'Malley et al.1985a), and then was extended and applied on foreign language

learners (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). O'Malley & Chamot (1990) differentiated learning strategies into three groups: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social-affective strategies (See figure 2-1 below).

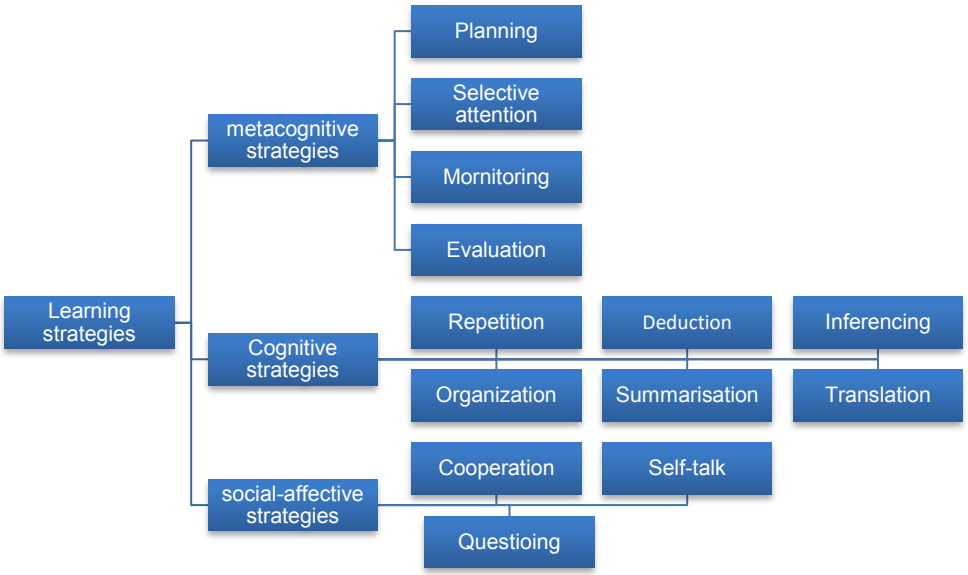

Figure 2- 1 Taxonomy of learning strategies (O'Malley and Chamot)

Metacognitive strategies are applicable to a variety of learning tasks (Nisbet & Shucksmith, 1986). It generally refers to strategies with planning, regulating and managing learning. These strategies are 'used to plan for a task, to monitor a task in progress, and to evaluate the success of a task after its completion' (Chamot, 1995:15). Cognitive strategies directly work on the incoming information and enhance learning. It refers to the materials to be learnt mentally. It includes rehearsal (repeat the items that have been heard), inference (use of information to guess the meaning of text and predict outcomes), deduction (apply rules to understand language), transfer (use linguistics knowledge to facilitate new learning tasks), and elaboration (integrate new idea with known knowledge). Social-affective strategies 'represent a broad grouping that involves either interaction with another person or ideational control over affect' (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990:45). In general, these strategies can apply to a wide variety of tasks. 'This category is important to second language acquisition as language is involved in co-operations and asking for clarification' (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994a: 63). For example, learners could apply cooperative strategies in order to solve learning problems, get feedback on the learning activities through working with peers, and using affective

mental controls (e.g. self-talk) to lower anxiety. The strategy of questioning for clarification encourages students to ask teachers or peers to get additional explanation or examples to enhance their understanding. However, whether this taxonomy is suitable for a detailed booklet of listening strategy instruction may not be obvious. Therefore, it is necessary to involve the reference of learning strategies from others, e.g. Oxford (1990) to study and compare.

2.6.2 The taxonomy of Oxford

Based on the review of the features of language learning strategies, Oxford (1990) proposed a new taxonomy of language learning strategies (see figure 3-2). She presents a strategy system that 'differs in several ways from earlier attempts to classify strategies' (p.14). It is 'perhaps the most comprehensive classification of learning strategies provided by Oxford' (Ellis, 1994: 539), which can be used as a reference or theoretical framework to design a listening strategy instruction booklet. Oxford (1990) divided strategies into direct strategies and indirect strategies. The direct strategies 'require mental processing of the language' (Oxford, 1990:37). Conversely, indirect strategies 'support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy and other means' (Oxford:1990:151).

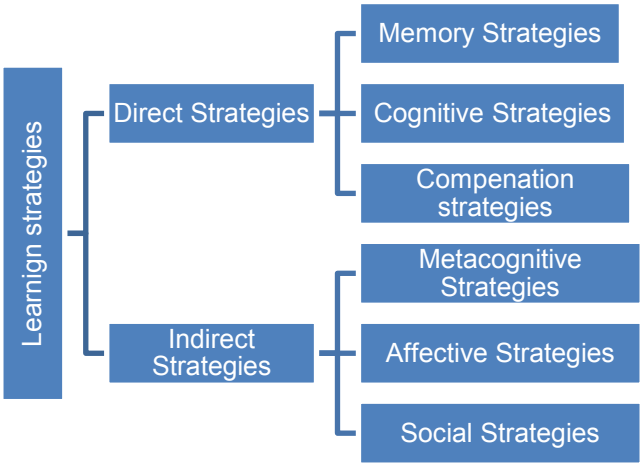

Figure 2- 2 Direct / Indirect learning strategies of Oxford's theory (1990)

According to Oxford, memory strategies create mental linkage, or imagery that facilitates the process of storing and retrieving new information. Based on the type of word, topic and similarity grouping the language material into meaningful units

to remember; it associates new language information with concepts already in memory; or uses visual imagery to remember abstract words. Cognitive strategies ‘are unified by a common function: manipulation or transformation of the target language by the learner’ (Oxford, 1990:43). The strategies of practicing are the most essential. Practicing strategies, including ‘repeating, formally practicing with sounds and writing systems, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, recombining, and practicing naturally-take on special value’. (Oxford, 1990:43). Strategies for receiving and sending messages contribute to getting the idea across quickly, helping learners use resources to understand incoming messages. Analyzing expressions is another aspect of cognitive strategies. Learners often use logical analysis and reasoning to understand the meaning of a new expression. Writing down the main idea, making a summary or highlighting important information are aims to create structure, which is helpful to comprehend and produce new language. Compensation strategies can help learners to comprehend new language despite limitations in knowledge. This includes two main methods: guessing intelligently and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. This is also called ‘inference’, which encourages learners to use clues (e.g. linguistic, non-linguistic clues: knowledge of context, text structure, personal experience) to guess the meaning of an unknown word. Compensation strategies overcome the knowledge gap mainly through translation using mime or gesticulation during speaking, approximating the message, and using synonym in writing and speaking.

Indirect strategies include the metacognitive, affective and social. Metacognitive strategies help learners to ‘converge their attention and energies on certain language tasks, activities, skills, or materials’ (Oxford, 1990:138). It enables learners to control their cognition with autonomous skills such as self-evaluation, planning, self-monitoring and paying attention. Specifically, it helps students to get the most out of language learning through setting their own aims (e.g. long-terms goal or short-term objectives), identifying the purpose of a lingual task, creating more opportunities to practice, as well as identify errors in understanding and evaluating learners’ own progress. Affective strategies encourage learners to regulate emotions, attitudes, to lower anxiety and increase self-encouragement. Cooperating with peers or proficient language users and asking questions for

clarification are categorized as social strategies. Therefore, I have used a combination of these learning strategies for listening comprehension in my research, as they may be helpful and practical.

2.6.3 Learning strategies in listening comprehension

'Strategy development is important for listening training because strategies are conscious means by which learners can guide and evaluate their own comprehension and responses' (Vandergrift, 1999). These strategies have been consistently advocated as an important part of the listening process in various studies by (e.g. Goh, 1998; 2002; Vandergrift, 2003; O'Malley & Chamot, 1989; Bozorgian, 2015; Rahimirad & Zare-ee, 2015). For example, listening strategies are helping make predictions about the content of a passage, using clues (linguistics knowledge, background knowledge) to infer the meaning of unknown words, as well as selectively paying attention to certain aspects of a message and 'listen out for' particular words or ideas.

Among all the strategies for listening, the three main types: metacognitive, cognitive and social affective from O'Malley and Chamot are commonly utilized for listening practice. For example, learners often use metacognitive planning strategies to clarify the objectives of a listening task and attend to specific information or situational details that facilitate their understanding (Vandergrift, 1999).

From the perspective of bottom-up and top-down cognitive processes; Henner-Stanchina (1987), Macaro, Graham and Vanderplank (2007) point out that in the top-down process, the more successful listeners are able to employ their prior knowledge flexibly in combination with other strategies to infer and guess the meaning of incoming information, even if they do not hear what the speakers said. While during the bottom-up processing, listeners pay attention to the meaning of vocabulary or other syntactic clues.

Vandergrift (2002) defined that social-affective strategies can be used by listeners to collaborate with others, to enhance and verify understanding about the listening materials and lower anxiety. It is necessary for listeners to realize that some factors such as emotions and attitudes may influence their listening performance, therefore, listeners should acknowledge how to reduce their anxiety, improve confidence in completing listening tasks, as well as promote personal motivation in improving listening competence (Vandergrift, 1999).

Compared with the listening strategies of O'Malley and Chamot, the direct/indirect strategies for listening from Oxford's classification, have some overlap in terms of the description of cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies and social-affective strategies. It also provides some compensative strategies (e.g. memory strategies) and presents a different explanation about each strategies' application (see Appendix 1&2) while listening.

In the category of direct strategies, memory strategies enable listeners to store important information they hear in their new language in order to enlarge their knowledge base. For example, they create a mental image of words or phrases, remember key words, repeat sounds in memory, and physically act out what listeners heard. These strategies also help listeners to retrieve information to use it for comprehension through memorisation.

Cognitive strategies for listening are more likely developed through the different aspects of practice, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output. For instance, the practice of listening to different sounds in various words and using live speech for listenincomprehension as much as possible; using resources (e.g. word lists, grammar books) to find out the meaning of what is heard, previewing questions provides many clues to predict and get the idea of listening materials quickly, breaking down a new word or phrase into component parts to analyze an expression to understand meaning, and developing note-taking skills to summarize information by highlighting key words while listening. Compensation strategies within listening skills mainly

encourage learners to guess meaning intelligently through linguistic knowledge (e.g. suffix, prefixes) and non-linguistics knowledge (e.g. background noise from a crowd and excited speech, listening to a football game broadcast).

2.6.4 Studies in listening strategy instruction

The goal of strategy training is to help students become more self-directed, autonomous, and effective learners through the improved use of language learning strategies. Therefore, strategy training is trying to help students acknowledge themselves to become more consciously aware of how and what strategies may be useful in different learning tasks, as well as having more control over their learning process. The awareness of learning strategies used, may contribute to efficient learning while strategy training could help students develop such awareness and believe it is useful.

In the past few decades, investigations into listening strategies started with a comparison between the use of successful and unsuccessful listening methods (Mareschal, 2007; Vandergrift, 2003b). Later, it gradually shifted to emphasize a strategy-based approach to teaching listening comprehension skills, which aims to instruct the students to 'learn to listen' in order to help them better 'listen to learn' (Vandergrift, 2004). Accordingly, listening instructors should be responsible for teaching students to make full use of listening strategies (Mendelsohn, 1995). This section provides a review of the literature around listening strategy instruction from the early research (O'Malley et al, 1985b, Chamot et al., Rubin, 1990) and the more recent empirical studies, which compound the results that listening strategy instruction contributes to listening comprehension improvement of learners (Amin, Aly and Amin, 2011).

O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper & Russo (1985) did an early empirical study in language learning strategies instruction. It explored the effectiveness of strategy instruction on beginning and intermediate level ESL students' learning performance in different academic settings (e.g. listening comprehension, pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary learning). In the experimental group, 27 students were trained to use the select attention strategy,

and 26 students in the cognitive group were taught notetaking. While the control group did not receive any listening strategy instruction, all the students were required to listen to four 5-minute recordings videotaped from an academic lecture and complete comprehension questions. Through comparing the post-test scores with pre-test, the authors found that students tended to use strategies more often in the less complicated listening tasks. In other words, when the task was more difficult, the strategy training cannot be effectively transferred into new listening tasks. Moreover, because the researchers fundamentally believe good strategy users are educated through listening strategy instruction, they pointed out that teachers did not realize the importance of strategies and seldom introduced strategies while teaching. Learners are suggested to be given more opportunities to practice applying strategies in language learning in order to become a proficient listening strategy user. Researchers also suggest that it is necessary to do strategy instruction, as a part of normal teaching, which could also enhance students' ability to learn new strategies and use them independently.

In 1990, Rubin conducted another listening strategy training study that aimed to investigate the most effective methods of listening strategy instruction. She designed three treatment groups: T1 blind group (without any strategy instruction). T2 Informed group (the name of each strategy and its usefulness are both presented explicitly). The T3 self-control group (strategy information and evaluation provided). The study also included two control groups: control group 1 (CG1) watch the same video as the treatment group without receiving any listening comprehension instruction or learning strategies, control group 2 (CG2) only watch the segments of the pre-test and post-test video and have normal lessons.

Students in these experimental groups received three cognitive strategies. Student performances were tested by video pre- and post-tests, as well as daily tests after every training session. Some problems in this study were encountered in terms of the lesson design. For example, there was the insufficient training of teachers, which did not give students further clarification on how to apply the listening strategies. Therefore, some essential factors that should be considered in the effective strategy instruction are as follows:

Firstly, and most importantly the teacher should receive extensive training on how to teach strategies and evaluate students' strategy use. Secondly, students should be encouraged to have sufficient learning, training and practice of strategy use on the target language.

More recent studies have emphasized not only about training students in a variety of strategies, but have identified the effective approaches within the general literature and how to employ this knowledge in listening tasks.

Amin, Aly and Amin (2011) investigated the correlation between EFL students' strategic listening and listening comprehension skills. The participants of this study are 80 female secondary school students who come from first-year EI-Shimaa Secondary School. The researchers measure the effectiveness of EFL learners' strategic listening via a Strategic Listening Questionnaire (SLQ) and a Strategic Listening Checklist (SLC) with the think-aloud protocol. In addition, an EFL listening comprehension test is used to test students' listening comprehension skills. The findings suggest that a positive development of listening comprehension is linked with students' knowledge and use of listening comprehension strategies. More importantly, the results of the study reveal that the higher frequency of listening strategy use, the higher the scores students obtained, which indicated a closer relationship between language learning strategies and a higher level of listening proficiency. These findings also show that good listeners have a good metacognitive awareness in terms of listening and applying listening comprehension strategies successfully, and that contributes to greater proficiency in listening comprehension (Graham, Santos & Vanderplank, 2008).

Similarly, Bidabadi (2011) explores the use of language learning strategies and their listening proficiency levels among the Iranian EFL freshman university students. All female participants were majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) course. This indicated that these participants may have higher motivations towards English language learning and improving listening comprehension. These students are selected as participants because listening

comprehension skills are important on this university course and this research was able to ensure the students' listening skills and proficiency would be able to cope with the teaching and learning context at university level. The data was mainly collected by the Oxford Placement Test (to identify the listening proficiency level of learners) and a Listening Strategy Questionnaire (to identify the strategies the learners' employed). Through analyzing the listening strategy questionnaire and the listening proficiency level of different learning groups (advanced, intermediate, and lower- intermediate level), the results reported that metacognitive strategies are most utilised by learners while listening, followed by cognitive strategies and social-affective strategies. In other words, these first-year students have a good ability to apply various listening strategies in order to comprehend a listening text.

The findings also indicate that a positive relationship between listening proficiency and listening strategies application exists, when a focus on the knowledge of language learning strategy and listening strategies is employed. Hong (2012) investigated the effect of listening strategy training on Chinese English majors in Vocational College, and tried to find out the differences in strategy use from learners' perspectives. There were 123 first-year English majors from three classes participating in this research, they were divided into two groups based on their scores of the CET-4 tests: higher proficiency students and lower proficiency students. One questionnaire was used to get the students' background knowledge, the other was designed under the instruction of O'Malley and Chamot's learning strategy classifications, which aims to find out students' awareness about using different listening strategies. The researcher found that the high-level students frequently used metacognitive strategies (e.g. self-management and selective attention) and cognitive strategies (e.g. note-taking), while the low-level students used social/affective strategies more often to cooperate with peers to complete listening tasks. Furthermore, the results also present high-achievers as being able to use various listening strategies flexibly. Based on these findings, the research suggests that students of different abilities may have different needs for improving listening comprehension skills, and teachers should carry out more appropriate strategy instruction to enhance students' listening ability.

Jing (2013) also investigates the listening strategy use on non-English specialized undergraduate students in China. This research studied 180 freshmen with equal proportions of male and female from non-English specialized departments. According to their scores of CET Band-4, the students are sampled as more proficient listeners and less proficient listeners. Through analyzing the data of questionnaires, it was concluded that the Chinese non-English specialized group employ listening strategies at a medium frequency level. The use of cognitive strategies accounts for the highest proportion of the three strategies utilized, followed by metacognitive strategies. Females more frequently used listening strategies than males. Additionally, effective listeners appeared to gain more control of the listening process by using more metacognitive strategies than the less effective listeners. Thus, compared with low proficiency listeners, the high proficiency listeners had more awareness of when to use strategy properly. Moreover, as there is a strong correlation between listening strategies and listening proficiency, the research indicates that teachers should take the students' strategy use attitude into account, strengthen guidance and effectively train learners' listening strategies to increase students' listening comprehension.

In 2014, Goh and Hu conducted a study that examined the relationship between metacognitive awareness (e.g. knowledge of listening strategies application and perspective of difficulty and anxiety after a listening class) of 112 English as a second language (ESL) Chinese learners and their listening performance. The participants in this study had been trained for six-months full-time in an English communication skills programme at the university of Singapore. Prior to this, these students had studied English for no less than six years in China. The questionnaire and an official sample IELTS listening test were used to reflect the participants' awareness of strategies. As a result, the collected data reports that the strategies of directed attention and problem-solving are very popular for learners, while they use less planning and evaluation strategies and even less use mental translation techniques. Furthermore, this indicates that the development of strategies and metacognitive knowledge contributes to learning to listening (Graham & Macaro, 2008), as it provides specific learning and training methods for listeners to use. This significant finding reveals that the metacognitive strategies are widely used by learners, which demonstrates that it may be important for teachers to introduce metacognitive knowledge to students. The design of the

booklet should also be taken into consideration. As such, this study will be used as a point of reference for my booklet design, where the metacognitive strategy will be introduced in the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction. This study also suggests that when introducing how proficient listeners orchestrate the use of different effective strategies and make appropriate training plans, the teachers should take measures to help low-performing listeners improve their listening proficiency, increase their listening confidence and reduce anxiety.

2.7 Definition of self–efficacy

The concept of self-efficacy is summarized by Oxford and Shearin (1994:21) as a 'broadened view of expectancy which is drawn from social cognition theory'. They defined the term as 'one's judgement of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective about his or her ability to accomplish a given task or activity'. Bandura (1997:3) defines self-efficacy as 'beliefs in one' s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments'. He emphases that the learners can predict their performance better than their real capabilities from the perception and beliefs of themselves. There is a mutual reciprocity between leaners' self-efficacy beliefs and how determined they will be in pursuing their goals(Graham,2011). It implies that in language learning, regardless of the ability of learners, research has consistently shown the considerable impact of self-efficacy on learning outcome, a stronger sense of self-efficacy often leads to higher levels of achievement, a greater willingness to face difficulties and to exert effort (Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006).

Self-efficacy is one of the main bases of social cognitive theory and acts as a motivational variable in education and has become an indispensable element of human function such as motivation, academic performance and learning (Pajares & Urdan, 2006). Therefore, students' self-efficacy perceptions contribute to their belief that they have the ability to achieve their desired goals and put more effort into their activities and finally succeed. For the 'Learners who attribute the level of their achievement on academic tasks to factors within their control (e.g., to effort expended or strategies employed) are likely to have higher levels of self-efficacy and to be motivated to attempt similar learning tasks again' (Graham & Macaro, 2008: 755).

In addition, attitude is ‘‘a state of readiness, a tendency to respond with certain stimuli’ (Oppenheim, 1992: 174). For instance, if someone has a strong feeling or belief about using learning strategies as a model of learning, this will influence their willingness to accept the use of learning strategies as an effective way to be a proficient learner. This concept of attitude explains the phenomenon of why the positive or negative tendencies of people towards subjects, events or persons often effects their ability to make different choices or decisions. Moallem (1990) posited that attitude generally is a kind of inner psychological trait that is developed and formed by both internal and external conditions to influence one’s tendency to act in a particular way. Research has provided evidence that the students’ attitude frequently connects with their learning achievement levels. Thus, the positive attitude often contributes to more higher levels of achievements (Baş, & Beyhab, 2017).

2.8 The relationships between learners’ self–efficacy and listening strategy instruction

‘An argument less frequently made …is that effective listening…depends on learners’ self-efficacy for listening, on their confidence in their ability to make sense of the input to which they are exposed’ (Graham, 2011:113). It is generally known that listening is a difficult skill that often increases learners’ frustrations, as the unfamiliar spoken message and the speed of its delivery create learners’ listening anxiety, which also decrease learners’ self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Some of empirical studies (e.g. Chen, 2007; Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006) show that self-efficacy has a positive influence on listening proficiency and lowers listening anxiety.

Some studies have indicated that listening self-efficacy plays an important role in listening and listening performance. For example, listening strategy instruction boosts EFL learners’ listening self-efficacy (Graham & Macaro, 2008), increases metacogntive awareness of listening strategies (Rahimi & Abedi, 2014) and enhances the effectiveness of listening comprehension (Field, 2008). Graham (2011) believes that a model of strategy instruction actually emphasizes on

increasing learners' sense of control about strategy use, in addition to teaching strategies. This also requires learners to be aware of the relationship between the strategies used and the outcome achieved. As the instruction within this model is based on learners' need to solve their difficulties, learners are able to select appropriate strategies to cope with listening difficulties in different situations and enhance and gain back their sense of control. It is believed that the use of listening strategies contributes to successful listening and strengthens learners' learning self-efficacy (Zimmerman, 1990). Furthermore, taking into consideration learners' self-efficacy as an important factor, largely dictates the tendency of learners' choices of learning strategies that lead to successful learning.

2.9 Empirical studies of learners' self-efficacy and listening comprehension development

Based on the theoretical framework of Bajndura's (1986) social cognitive theory, Chen (2007) investigates the predictive power of English listening self-efficacy, English anxiety, and the perceived value of English language and culture on EFL learners' English listening performance. He invited 270 college students in Taiwan to complete the English listening self-efficacy Questionnaire, related to English listening anxiety, perceived value of English language and culture, and the source of English listening self-efficacy. The conclusion from this research provides a new perspective, namely that the development of learners' English listening self-efficacy is more important for teachers in the classroom. These results show that English listening self-efficacy has a stronger effect on English listening performance, having a much greater influence than English listening anxiety and their perceived value of the English language and culture. These results show the importance of English listening self-efficacy, as it is not only associated with learners' performance, but also determines the degree of impact on learners' English listening anxiety. In general, this study has shown that a positive sense of self-efficacy contributes to decreasing the anxiety level of listeners.

Rahimi and Abedini (2009) proposed the importance of the role of EFL learner's self-efficacy regarding the listening comprehension in learners' listening test

performance. A group of 61 freshmen participated this study. The questionnaire was designed based on the *Beliefs About Language Learning (BALLI)* and the 'Listening Diagnostic Pre-test' adopted to measure students' listening proficiency. The results of the statistical analysis indicate that listening comprehension of self-efficacy was significantly relevant to listening proficiency. As such, the strength of learners' self-efficacy can positively influence their level of language achievement. As Pajares (2000) notes, 'many, if not most, academic crises are crises of confidence.' To teach listening successfully a sound pedagocical approach should consist of both strategy based instruction and learners' listening self-efficacy development.

Yilmaz (2010) investigated the current English language learning strategies employed by English majors of a university in Turkey. He added different components as the potential factors (e.g. preferred language strategies, gender, proficiency and self-efficacy) that may influence the language learners' performance. Oxford's (1990) 50-item Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILI, version 7.0) was adapted for this study. A 5-point Likert scale was used to describe the students' strategy preference in terms of 6 categories: memory, cognitive, compensation, affectiveness, and social strategies. The results indicate a high use of compensation strategies, and the significant differences between higher language achievers and lower achievers in the affective strategies. Good students were seen to use affective strategies more frequently in order to encourage themselves to store information and reduce anxiety. More importantly, the research provides a positive result that learners' self-efficacy is strongly related to their use of learning strategies. This shows that students with high proficiency and self-efficacy are also highly skilled at using cognitive, compensation and metacognitive strategies than less proficient students. The results of this research are of great value, as this thesis postulates that self–efficacy may influence students' choices on learning strategies, which may lead to a different learning performance and outcome. This highlights that the self-efficacy has a closer relationship with the language proficiency of learners.

Current studies on listening comprehension have emphasized several factors that contribute to being proficient and successful listeners, and 'less research has focused on self-efficacy beliefs in the context of foreign language learning' (Raoofi, Tan & Chan, 2012:6). While in Rahimi & Abedi's (2014) empirical study, they investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' listening self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness of listening strategies. More than three hundred students completed a questionnaire on English listening self-efficacy and a metacognitive awareness listening. The result presents a positive correlation between listening self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness of listening strategies. Moreover, it finds that listening self-efficacy was found to be relevant to planning-evaluation and problem-solving strategies. Higher self-efficacy brings more control over listening tasks and contributes to successful listeners and language users. These results have inspired this thesis and the attention it gives to the development of listening self-efficacy of students. Helping language learners develop positive beliefs in their ability is very important and should be considered and applied in designing a learner-centered language curriculum.

2.10 Situated demonstration-based learning strategy instruction

In 2015, Irvine-Niakaris and Kiely carried out their research on learning strategies in reading comprehension, they pointed out the attention to strategies is not only explicit strategy instruction, but also the situated demonstration by the teacher of how strategies can unblock the meaning of the text. Because of the comprehension process, listening shares many important characteristics with reading. Both are cognitive processes which use two knowledge sources: linguistics knowledge (e.g. syntax) and world knowledge (e.g. topic and culture background) in order to understand a text. The cognitive processing is flexible and adaptable to task demands, for the purpose of constructing in memory a mental representation of what has been comprehended (Vandergrift & Baker, 2015). Therefore, this study takes the idea of situated-demonstration of strategy instruction and applies it to the improvement of listening comprehension. To achieve this, the teacher in this study demonstrated how to use listening strategies in listening tasks, as well as sharing personal learning experiences, as a way of 'demonstrating' the listening strategy. This paper is going to embed and integrate the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction into teacher's work and regular listening teaching and practice materials

2.11 Summary

This chapter is mainly divided into three parts: 1. the concept of listening, listening processing and listening comprehension. 2. language learning strategy and listening strategy uses. 3. Self-efficacy in listening comprehension. The beginning of this chapter provided a wider definition of listening, then explored cognitive listening processing and explained the concept of listening comprehension. This was followed by language learning strategy section, which reviewed the definition and classification from Oxford (1991) and O'Malley & Chamot (1990), and their learning strategy used in listening comprehension. This chapter then concluded with the concept of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction. This addressed the importance of self-efficacy in learning achievement, and the direct positive correlation between the self-efficacy and language learning performance.

Chapter 3 Research Design

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology and the context proposed in this research. First, it gives a brief introduction to this research design (3.2). Next, it highlights the aims of the study (3.3) and presents research questions (3.4). Section 3.5 shows a detailed description of the participants (both students and teachers), as well as a distribution of students in different English listening proficiency levels. Then, section 3.6 introduces the different research paradigms that focus on the quantitative and qualitative as the two main dominant methods of inquiry in the research. This is followed by outlining the process of developing specific research techniques (e.g. booklet design, questionnaire, interview etc.), along with some presentations and discussions of the purpose obtained from the different instruments used in this study. Section 3.7 explains the analytical methods which include the concept of content analysis and the coding procedure of the verbal report and questionnaire. The final part will be the summary of this chapter (3.8).

3.2 An overview of the research design

This intervention study attempts to explore the effectiveness of situated-demonstration-based listening strategy instruction and identify the influence of listening training on self- efficacy development of Chinese undergraduate students. 146 students from two universities were chosen as the research subjects, and two listening teachers respectively taught one group in this study (see section 4.5). The students (N=72) in University L in the control group (CG), which represents the traditional teaching methods used in China. While the students (N=74) study in the University G, which reflects listed listening strategies (see Appendix on the booklet of listening strategies) to deliver a listening training course. In order to compare the differences from the perspective of listening comprehension achievement and self-efficacy development, both groups of students had a series of English proficiency assessment tests (PETS-2) in listening comprehension at the beginning and end of the course (after 3 months), which are named as pre-test and post-test. While in both tests, the students were asked to write down their thoughts or the listening methods, which they used to

comprehend or work out the answers after choosing the answers (called verbal reports, see 3.7.5). Then, the students filled out a Likert-scale listening strategy and attitude questionnaire afterward. Moreover, based on the score of the tests, 16 students with different listening comprehension achievement (higher, medium and lower) were invited to be interviewed in the end, respectively eight students in each group. Two listening teachers were invited to do the retrospective interviews, which offer the perspectives of teachers' understanding of the listening training and their teaching beliefs. The researcher also did a whole observation in the listening class of the experimental group, the field notes help to record how the teacher carries out situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction in the class, as well as add more detailed information that I observed. A summary of this research is shown in Table 3-1.

Table 3- 1 A summary of the research design

EG=Experimental group CG= Control group; T=teacher; R=Researcher;

Quan A=quantitative analysis; Qual A=qualitative analysis; RQ=research question

Data sets	EG	CG	T in EG	T in CG	R	Qual A	Quan A	when carried out	RQ
Pre and post-test (20 questions for each test, which are all about listening comprehension)	√	√	√	√			√	Beginning and end of the research	1a.To what extent does listening strategy instruction contribute to the development of listening comprehension?
Verbal report (to tell what and how do the students figure out the answers to the questions)	√	√				√		While the students are doing the pre and post tests	1b.How are learners with different listening abilities similar or different in their listening processing?

Interviews **(16 students' interviews and 2 interviews of teachers)**	**Questionnaire** **(include two main sections, one for the listening strategies use, the other is for the self-efficacy measurement)**
√	√
√	√
√	
√	
√	
	√
End of the research	After pre- and post-test
2a. To what extent does the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction affect learners' self-efficacy (motivation, attitude, beliefs) development? 2b. To what extent does the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction affect the students' perceived value of English listening comprehension training?	1c. What are the most frequently used listening strategies employed by undergraduate students? 2a. To what extent does the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction affect learners' self-efficacy development? 2b. To what extent does the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction affect the students' perceived value of English listening comprehension training?

Classroom observation- field notes (3000-4000 words field notes of classroom observation in experimental group)					√	√		In the EG listening class for 10 weeks	1a.To what extent does listening strategy instruction contribute to the development of listening comprehension? (This is a confirmatory data set for analysis in relation to RQ 1a)

3.3 Aim of the study

The overall aim of the study was to understand Chinese undergraduate students and find out more effective listening strategies to achieve a higher proficiency in listening performance. Thus, operationally applying demonstrated listening strategy instruction, the students in the experimental group sought to be trained to apply listening strategies for 3 months. After 3 months, there is a comparison between the experimental group and control group on students' listening achievement, their knowledge and use of listening strategies as well as their perceived value of strategy use. This study also examined and compared the effects of these approaches on the development of students' self-efficacy after the listening training.

3.4 Research questions

1. How does listening strategy instruction affect listening comprehension performance and development?

    1a. To what extent does listening strategy instruction contribute to the development of listening comprehension?

    1b. How are the learners with different listening abilities similar or different in their strategy processing?

    1c. What are the most frequently used listening strategies employed by the the undergraduate students?

2. In what ways does the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction affect the students' attitudes towards listening comprehension?

    2a. To what extent does the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction affect learners' self-efficacy development?

    2b. To what extent does the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction affect the students' perceived value of English listening comprehension training?

3.5 Participants

The population of students majoring in English at the department of English and foreign languages, there are 146 first year undergraduate students, respectively

72 students (from three classes) come from University L, and 74 students (from three classes) are from University G in China. They all grew up in China and had Chinese as their native language. Because of the same National Universities Entrance Exam Syllabus, and the same entry requirement of undergraduate study, the students in these two universities could be considered to have similar knowledge background or even similar mental abilities. Moreover, taking the validity of the research into consideration, I chose two universities, in which the teachers and the students did not know each other, this reduces the possibility of exchanging the teaching methods and ideas. The students of University L were in the control group and University G was in the experimental group.

The students' performance in the National University Entrance Exam is being taken as the main factor that decides which universities students could go. English is one of the subjects that is tested, which includes grammar, reading, writing and vocabulary etc. Therefore, the score of the English test reflects a comprehensive aspect of students' English proficiency. The participants in this research are the first-year undergraduate students, who were participating in the study after taking the national university exam, their English scores stand for very recent overall English language proficiency. Accordingly, a comparison of English scores between two groups, which reflected whether the experimental group and control group were equal before the treatment in the perspective of students' comprehensive English ability. In other words, the same English language proficiency of students between two groups worked as an important foundation for the researcher to find out the differences after the intervention. If the students are in the different English levels, then they were not able to be invited to the research, as it against the equivalence rules.

As we can see from the Table 6-1, 74 students in the experimental group reported their national entrance English scores, the highest score is 127 (out of 150), and the lowest score is 80 (out of 150), the average score that experimental group students achieved is 109.41. In the control group, the average score is 108.03 among 72 students, with the highest score 132 (out of 150) and the lowest score 95 (out of 150).

Table 3- 2 Summary statistics of the National University Entrance Exam - English subject

	Group	N	Max	Min	Mean	Std. Deviation
National University Entrance Exam-English subject	Experimental group	74	127	80	109.41	9.760
	Control group	72	132	95	108.83	9.420

The experimental group students *(N=74)* were associated with the pre-test score *M=109.41 (SD=1.135).* By comparison, the control group students (*N=72)* were associated with a numerically smaller pre-test score *M=108.83 (SD=1.118).* To test the hypothesis that the experimental group and control group was associated with no significant difference in terms of their English scores, an independent samples t-test was carried out. As equality of variances is the pre-requisite to any comparison of two independent means according to the analysis done by SPSS the p-value was calculated to be 0.922 which was bigger than 0.05, and the two values in standard deviation are very similar, so it could be assumed that with 95% confidence the variances were equal. An independent samples t-test was carried out to compare equality of the means for independent groups; accordingly, a two tailed-t-test was utilized for comparing the means. Likewise, the p-value was 0.719 which was bigger than 0.05, it was confirmed that the mean scores between the two groups were not significantly different. Therefore, the general English background abilities of the two groups were initially equal.

Table 3- 3 A comparison of English entrance exam scores between groups

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
English Entrance exam scores	Equal variances assumed	.010	.922	.360	143	.719	.574	1.594	-2.576	3.725
	Equal variances not assumed			.361	142.994	.719	.574	1.593	-2.574	3.723

The University entrance exam-English subject is one of the most important tests for the universities in China to select qualified students to continue with undergraduate study. Based on the students' overall English language proficiency (their scores of the University entrance English exam), the students in both groups are defined as three levels, the lower level students whose overall English scores are under 100, the middle-level students' scores are between 101-120 and the higher-level students who achieved more than 120 in the exam. Accordingly, there are 20 higher-level students in the experimental group, 38 students are in the middle level and 16 lower-level students. In the control group, most of the students (N=46) are in the middle level, the number of advanced learners and lower-level students is 10 and 15 respectively.

Table 3- 4 Numbers of participants

Participants	Number	Pre/posttest	interview	questionnaire	Verbal report
Experimental group	74	√		√	√
	8 out of 74		√		
Control group	72	√		√	√
	8 out of 72		√		

In order to track students' listening comprehension performance, each student has been given a reference number in the study. The first two letters in the code stand for the group (EG for the experimental group, CG for the control group), the first number stands for which class within the group, the second number is student number. For example, EG1-1, which means experimental group student, class one, student number is 1. All the students were also asked to write down their reference numbers in other research instruments, e.g. verbal report and interview. Therefore, the individuals' listening comprehension performance in the tests, verbal reports and questionnaires can all be tracked.

3.5.1 The selection and invitation for students' interviews

Out of the 146 students, 16 students were invited to be interviewed, they were divided into 3 levels: 8 higher listening proficiency students (respectively 4 in each group), four middle-level students with big progress in the post-test (respectively 2 in each group) and 8 lower listening comprehension proficiency students (respectively 4 in each group), each group with 4 higher achievers and 4 lower achievers respectively. More precisely, higher-level students have met the following three criteria:

- Actively attended and participated in the classroom interaction with teachers.
- Attained, at least, a very good overall grade in the academic semester.

- Achieved the correction rate of more than 80% in the PETS-2 (in both pre- and post-test).

Middle-level with progress in the post-test which includes those who that

- Participated in the classroom actively.
- Attained a good overall grade in the academic semester.
- The difference of the correction rate between pre- and post-test score was over 15.
- Achieved the scores between 50% to 79% in the PETS-2 (both in pre/post-test)

While a low proficiency student should have:

- Participated in the classroom teaching
- Attained a pass at least in the academic semester.
- Achieved the scores of less than 50% in the PETS-2 (both in pre/post-test)

The considerations of 16 students' interviews contain two parts: 1) the scores of pre- and post-tests, which are from PETS-2 (the public English Test system, level-2); 2) the teachers' suggestions on student selection. In other words, the scores of students provide the numerical information of students' listening performance. On the other hand, the teachers are more familiar with students through the classroom interaction, their suggestions would be confirmation that these students were appropriately selected and invited to this research. Therefore, interviewed students are added one more letter for their reference numbers in the interview, which stands for the listening proficiency achieved level (H for higher, P for middle level with big progress, L for lower). EG1-04H, for example, represents class one of the experimental group, student number is 04, H for high proficiency level. Here are the lists of students who were invited for the interviews.

Table 3- 5 Interviewed students in the experimental group

Reference number	Pre-test scores (100%)	Post-test scores (100%)	Listening proficiency have achieved
EG1-04H	100	80	Higher proficiency level
EG3-03H	85	85	
EG3-16P	50	75	Middle-level with big progress
EG3-24P	50	75	
EG1-17L	25	40	Lower proficiency
EG2-21L	40	40	
EG3-21L	45	45	
EG2-03L	30	40	

Table 3- 6 Interviewed students in the control group

Reference number	Pre-test scores (100%)	Post-test scores (100%)	Listening proficiency have achieved
CG2-12H	80	90	Higher proficiency level
CG3-10H	85	85	
CG3-17P	5	55	Middle-level with big progress
CG2-30P	30	60	
CG1-28L	45	45	Lower proficiency level
CG2-11L	45	45	
CG2-17L	45	25	
CG2-14L	30	45	

3.5.2 The teachers in the study

In addition to the students' participation, there were two English listening teachers who were teaching the listening course in two universities respectively. Teacher A is the listening teacher in the experimental group, who is teaching the module of academic listening in University G, and teacher B is an English listening teacher of the control group in University L. They are both experienced female teachers, and have taught English listening courses for over ten years.

Table 3- 7 The information of participant teachers in the research

Participants	In which group	Teaching methods	Years of teaching	Teaching place
Teacher A	Experimental group	A situated-demonstration-based listening strategy instruction	15years	University G
Teacher B	Control group	Conventional listening comprehension instruction	13years	University L

3.6 Research Methods

From the perspectives of a frequent preference for traditional types of research, 'research involves a hypothesis which is then tested' (McDonough & McDonough, 2014: 42), which reflects, especially in the idea that theory can be gained from data collected. Furthermore, 'research values precision, control, replication and attempts to generalize from specific events. (Cohen & Manion, 1989:229). In process, researchers follow different methodologies to achieve their goals and test the hypothesis. The quantitative paradigm, on the other hand, refers to a deductive and generalizable model. To be more specific, quantitative research is characterized by 'verification and outcome-oriented, measurement and tends to be objective, and the outside's perspective population oriented' (Steckler & Mcleroy, 1992:2). The importance of qualitative methods has been increasingly recognized in the area of second language research. A brief definition of the qualitative method is characterized by descriptive data that does not refer to the statistical procedures. Rather, it involves careful and detailed descriptions. Qualitative researchers are attempting to study individuals and events in natural settings, in other words, it aims to investigate and explore individual's state of mind by collecting a rich and in-depth data set (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991), instead of a setting which is 'contrived, manipulated, or artificially fashioned by the inquirer' (Schwandt, 1997:174).

By analyzing these two approaches, a conclusion can be drawn that utilizing qualitative and quantitative data should not be viewed as a conflict of opposed methods, but rather as the complementary means of exploring the complex phenomena at work in second language acquisition (Mackey & Gass, 2005:164).

More often, since both the qualitative and quantitative methods have weaknesses to a certain extent, descriptive statistics and qualitative findings have been presented together (Mercurio, 1979), and are compensated for by the strengths of the other (Steckler & Mcleroy, 1992).

In this sense, the current study used a complementary method of data collection, which is known as triangulation. It 'entails the use of multiple, independent methods of obtaining data in a single investigation in order to arrive at the same research findings' (Mackey & Gass, 2005: 181), which provides various perspectives (quantitative and qualitative) to explore or explain more fully the richness and complexity of human behaviour (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000:112). Such triangulation 'reduces observer or interviewer bias and enhances the validity and reliability (accuracy) of the information' (Johnson, 1992: 146). Denzin and Lincoln (1994:2) give a similar comment that 'the combination of multiple methods in a single study is best understood as a strategy that adds rigor, breadth and depth to any investigation'.

With this perspective, the current study uses a number of data techniques, more than questionnaires and tests, which are most popular and often frequently adopted in most ELT studies in China. In this sense, a combination of both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques 'in a way that achieves complementary strengths and non-overlapping' (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:18), which balance the relationship between the wider contexts (quantitative data) and qualitative in-depth data (Levin, 1990). In this connection, quantitative research is more supportive to clarify the research problems by giving statistical analysis. At the same time, the qualitative findings and analysis refine and explain these statistics results through exploring the views of participants in more depth (Rossman & Wilson, 1985; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Creswell, 2004). Accordingly, the use of quantitative and qualitative data contributes to the trustworthiness of data collected (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992).

A variety of essential strategy assessment instruments were used in finding out the comprehension view about the effect of listening training, students' perceptions about listening classes, and listening strategy instruction, as well as a view of listening strategy design through teachers' perspectives. This study includes six main instruments: 1) booklet of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction 2) pre/post-test, 3) students' verbal reports, 4) questionnaire, 5) interview, 6) field notes of classroom observation. For a more detailed description of data collection tools used in the current study further explanation is in the following subsections below.

3.6.1 Booklet of demonstrated listening strategy instruction

Situated learning is a cognitive process that suggests 'learning and doing are inseparable and that learning is a process of enculturation' (Hendricks, 2001:1). In order to carry out such situated learning, this booklet is designed to encourage teachers to have listening strategy training sessions for students by situated-demonstration. It means the teacher will not only let students know which strategy is going to be used, but also demonstrate how to use it in a specific listening task. In each lesson, the teacher introduces and explains listening strategies, and then demonstrates the ways to use it. Appendix 3 listed the content of listening strategies, it gives examples for teachers to demonstrate each strategy in the listening tasks from the course book. For example, the strategy of practice and pronunciation (see Appendix 3-2.1.2) which asks students to pay attention to the accuracy of words' pronunciation, the teacher will emphasize the importance of standard pronunciation of words in the listening comprehension, then listen and repeat after the audio.

Based on the theory, categories of learning strategies from Oxford (1990) (see in Chapter Two), and the characters of the listening textbook of experimental group, this booklet was designed and divided into four sections that are: 1) the definition of learning strategies; an explanation of learning strategies in listening, 2) how the teacher demonstrates the listening strategies in a specific task, as well as 3) the location of this strategy use in the course book (see Appendix 3). It mainly derives

from direct strategies and indirect strategies, such as planning for a listening task, using some clues of the listening task to intelligently predict. Besides this detailed and careful design, whether the precise listening strategies fit in the listening tasks properly and the understanding of design from the experimental group teacher were the concerns in this instrument.

After revising the booklet design from part of initial piloting to clearly and directly giving explanation to the method do what teachers should follow, it was also sent to the teacher A (listening teacher in the experimental group) and her colleagues. Because the teacher is more familiar with the course book and has a good knowledge of the students' listening proficiency level well, the first purpose of doing this was to consider and estimate the feasibility of such a design in a more practical teaching situation by the experienced teachers; on the other hand, it also helped the experimental group's teacher to understand the whole intervention from the perspectives of research design and its administration. The result of this procedure is that a better revision of the booklet was formed in terms of exercise distribution (e.g. give more opportunities for some difficult listening tasks to practice through applying the listening strategies, like dictation); at the same time, the teacher gained clearer teaching goals and teaching plans to carry out the listening strategy training, and good time management in the class.

Adults need to 'learn in it, as they act in situations and are acted upon by situations' (Wilson, 1993, 75). Therefore, the situated-demonstration of listening strategies are integrated into regular classroom materials "Listen To This*": 1* in experimental group. This course book involves different types of listening tasks, which includes *choose the best answer, fill in the missing words according to the tape, true or false questions, dictation,* and the topics of listening materials ranged from basic daily conversation (e.g. going shopping, being on holiday) to western culture such as, continental breakfast. The difficulty level of listening tasks increases from unit one to ten. Each unit's exercise can be delivered and practiced in a 2-hour listening training lesson. Therefore, ten units listening training materials were taken into the booklet design. A lesson plan with listening strategies has been provided as an example in Appendix 14.

3.6.2 Pre-test and post-test

The PETS is the abbreviation of Public English Test System (PETS), which is authorized by the Ministry of Education to test English language learners in China. It is measuring the comprehensive English ability of English language learning through listening, speaking, writing and reading. Five different levels of tests are provided: English beginner level (level 1) to higher level of qualified English language users (level 5). The level of PETS-level 2 is especially designed"for students graduating from High School to starting University. This is fitted into the participant's English level in this research. Moreover, this is a national standard examination, each test has been tested in terms of their validity and reliability to ensure equivalence between every test, and a number of studies show that the PETS test is one of the most reliable English tests available. Therefore, two listening tests were borrowed from PETS-2 (2009 and 2011 respectively) as pre- and post-tests instruments in this research, which is used to measure the students' listening comprehension proficiency. 'Participants are given a pre-test to ensure comparability of the participant groups prior to their treatment, and a post-test to measure the effects of treatment' Mackey & Gass, 2005: 148). Both tests share the same question settings-standard four-option multiple-choice format. It includes 20 questions that are divided into two sections, and the difficulty level increases from the first question to the end. Students are already familiar with these types of task because they have carried them out in their school time. Accordingly, the task has face validity (Mackey& Gass, 2005) for the learners. The differences between the first section and second section of listening tests are that the length of dialogues is longer than the ones in the first section, and the students are asked to answer 3 to 4 questions in section two, instead of only one question in the first part. The dialogues in the second part are all presented twice, which give more opportunities for students to listen and comprehend.

3.6.3 Verbal reports

There is no doubt that verbal reports 'perhaps the most viable means of obtaining empirical evidence as to strategy use than any other means' (Cohen & Scott,

1996: 95), as it provides a 'window into the often hidden processes that language learners use to accomplish their purposes in the second language' (Anderson & Vandergrift, 1996:95), especially in listening strategy. According to Goh (1998:128-129) summarized several reasons for this growing interest: 'the importance of learning strategy research has created a need for procedures, which give access to information not accessible with other data collection techniques and which in addition can obtain data about what learners know and do'.

The second reason is that this type of retrospective report has to do with the steps being taken to improve research designs and write-ups so as to avoid the pitfalls associated with verbal reports (Matsumoto, 1993; Cohen, 1996).

Listening comprehension is also about information processing, Ericsson and Simon (1980:25) suggested two main assumptions, which are:

1. Information recently acquired (attended to or heeded) by the central processor is kept in short-term memory and is directly accessible for further processing (e.g. for producing verbal reports).
2. Information in long-term memory must first be retrieved (transferred to short-term memory) before it can be reported.

Therefore, this research adapted *retrospective verbalization,* in which participants report on what they have done while they were performing the task. Of course, in order to enhance verbal use, there are two important factors that should be considered. Whether the subjects could produce the useful and accurate protocols, and whether the second language ability could be the limitations on their reports. The verbal report of students took place to solve these problems, both training on verbal reporting before the research and the choice of language of verbalization will be explained as follow:

i) Training

In order to help learners understand how to carry out verbal protocols properly, it is necessary for them to have trainings in the think-aloud approach before going through the process of verbalization (Ericsson & Simon, 1984; Cohen & Aphek, 1981). For example, the researcher gives some demonstrations of thought processes while listening and completing a task, to show participants what has

written down or how to describe thoughts in a report. Such a demonstration could provide learners the opportunities to clearly understand what is reported upon in the protocols.

ii) Choice of language in verbalization

One of the concerns in using the think-aloud method is the learners' language ability, specially their verbal ability as a serious limitation for learners to report in L2 learners (Cohen, 1994, 1998). Due to the limited vocabularies and inaccurate written language, the participants may omit some of their thoughts that are difficult to express or describe in English. This this in turn gives learners the choice of their native language (Chinese) or the target language (English). The learners could choose any of them or both to report, which may help solve this concern. The verbal reporting takes place after each question of tests, as it tells how and in which way the students figure out the answers.

3.6.4 Questionnaire

Questionnaires are probably the most popular and commonly used research technique in the area of language learning strategy research (Bidabadi & Yamat, 2011; Gerami & Baighlou, 2011. Questionnaires enable the researcher to collect data on 'the beliefs and motivations about learning or their reactions to learning and classroom instruction and activities' (Mackey & Gass, 2005:93) from a large group of participants, which uniformly lead to statistical analysis. Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995:2) highlight the application of questionnaires, in which there are a number of advantages in investigating the learning strategies. For example, a large number of statistics from the participant's choice enable researchers to generated and test their hypotheses. Also, the different types of questions are able to examine the learners' strategy use in various language tasks. However, there is a limitation in questionnaires which may cause the learner to over or under estimate the frequency of certain strategies. Additionally, they may not realize when they are using a given strategy or how they are using it (Cohen, 2014). In other words, there may be a difference between the participant's responses that reflect what should be done and they actually do in the tasks to please the researcher or leave a good impression about their abilities of language strategies

application. In order to minimize such limitations, the questionnaire was carefully designed and clearly applied instructions with explanations were described accurately. With pilot studies and back translations (which ensure bilingual users get helped translating all items from the questionnaire from Chinese to English. This in order, ensures the meaning of items in both languages are the same) test the clarity and comprehensibility of all items and instructions. In other words, there are only a few translation problems that needed to be fixed.

Oxford (1990) developed the structured self-report questionnaire, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), a Likert-scale measure, examines the frequency of strategies use for language learning. It consists of six strategy categories: '1) memory strategies for storing and retrieving new information; 2) cognitive strategies for understanding and producing the language; 3) compensation strategies for overcoming deficiencies of knowledge in language; 4) metacognitive strategies for directing the learning process; 5) effective strategies for regulating emotions, motivations, and attitudes; 6) social strategies for increasing learning experiences with other people' (Park, 1997:213). Since the SILL was also used as the theoretical background to design the booklet, which was carried out in the experimental group, the sections of listening strategies use and share similar theory contents to design and display in the questionnaire (See chapter two, Appendix 4).

Based on the SILL and a general cognitive model of learning and information processing (see Weinstein & Mayer, 1986), the section of listening strategy use in the questionnaire has also adapted from other existing researches which aim to find out the listening strategy use, which include three general types: metacognitive, cognitive and social-affective. Metacognitive strategies help learners to coordinate their own learning process. It includes: paying attention to the listening tasks, planning (setting goals) and arranging (identifying the purpose of tasks), as well as the self-evaluating or monitoring (of one's comprehension). The second general category is cognitive strategies which are from repeating to analyze expressions to summarizing (Oxford, 1990). Specifically, mainly two subscales are concerned to measure, elaboration strategies (e.g., paraphrasing,

summarizing); organization strategies (e.g., highlighting) and compensation strategies (e.g. guessing). In addition, the subgroup on critical thinking refers to linking previous knowledge to comprehend a new situation or make critical evaluations of ideas. The third general category is social-affective which includes peer learning (e.g. cooperating with a study group or friends to help learn) and self-encouragement.

Moreover, this study is investigating both the frequency of strategies use and the outcome of the listening instruction, for example, students' self-efficacy. Accordingly, another important content of questionnaire use is the self-efficacy measurement. For this part, I borrowed the motivational orientation measurement from The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ), which is also a self-report instrument. It aims to judge one's ability to accomplish a task and confidence in one's skill to perform a task. Three subgroups are included in the self-efficacy (see chapter2) measurement value beliefs: extrinsic goal orientation (an emphasis on the grades and achievements) and task value belief (judgment of how interesting, useful and importance of English listening and listening training), as well as the test anxiety scale, which is in regards to students' worry and concern over taking exams or challenging listening tasks.

Therefore, 60 Likert-scale questions range from '1: never or almost never true of me' to '5: always or almost true of me', which as a whole, all items were designed to answer the variety of students' attitude on listening training and the frequency of students' use of listening strategies as well as students' self-efficacy. Among these questions, 30 questions in SILL were used to measure the listening strategy use, which were accompanied by 10 questions of the perceived value of listening comprehension training, as well as 20 questions about students' self-efficacy information. The participants were asked to complete the questionnaires after the listening comprehension tests (pre- and post-test). As I have explained this data collection process and its purpose at the beginning, the students were free to share their opinion through the use of questionnaire, they have no pressure to give the perfect answers to please the researcher. All of them have completed the

questionnaires individually and seriously, their answers reflected with real thoughts will be the valuable data in this research.

3.6.5 Interview

In addition to the above instruments, the interview is the most important data collection tool, as well as a good way to explore perceptions, meaning, and definition of situation and constructions of reality (Punch, 2009). The qualitative interviews are interactive and extensions of naturalistic conversations, it supplements additional data to initial answers that are incomplete, off-topic or not specific enough. Moreover, in spite of the reliability and validity of the SILL, it is reported to be high in many studies (Oxford & Burry, 1995), the potential issue is that EFL learners have reported in SILL using some listening strategies and some that are not (Mullins, 1992). Interviews can investigate phenomena that are not obviously observable, and be used to elicit data from learners through conversation. For example, conducting interview questions in learners' L1, therefore reducing worries and concerns about 'the proficiency of the learner impacting the quality and quantity of the data provided' (Mackey & Gass, 2005:174). Accordingly, the retrospective interview of students in this study was carried out in Chinese after the post-test, with the goals of figuring more out about the students' listening training awareness, their strategy use, and self-efficacy development. This structured interview consists of 17 questions, which are planned and standardized in advance. The purpose of students' retrospective interviews was:

a) to reflect the students' strategy use in their own voice after completing a whole semester's listening training,
b) to see if there were any differences between the control group and experimental group in their self-efficacy development and attitudes as the intervention went on, and
c) to provide a deep understanding of the scores they obtained in both tests and the results of the strategy use section in the questionnaire. Students were asked to comment on their listening comprehension performance, highlight listening strategies they had learned from listening comprehension training and practiced in the daily practice.

Besides, the teachers' retrospective interview was used at the end of the research, which provided a view of the listening training from the teachers' perspectives. Detailed goals of teachers' retrospective interviews were:

a) to evaluate the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction
b) to see if there were any differences between the teacher's reflection, also the expected effects of classroom-based listening teaching and students' reflections, and
c) to add depth to the information of the teacher's belief about classroom-based listening training and comments on the students' performance and achievements.
d) to explore possible changes in teachers' practice as an effect of participating in this research.

3.6.6 Classroom observation- field notes

Observation often refers to 'methods of generating data which involve the researchers immersing themselves in a research setting, and systematically observing dimensions of that setting interactions, relationships, actions, events, and so on, within it' (Mason, 1996: 60). Approaching observation (Foster, 1996b) is a way to establish the focus of the observations, in other words, it is necessary for researchers to decide both the content of observation and tell the reasons. The observational researcher's task is the usual one of analyzing these in relation to the purpose and context of the research, and then choosing accordingly (Punch and Oancea, 2009: 198). For a period of observation, it may contribute researchers to gaining a deeper and more comprehensive understanding of the research context. A good strategy in qualitative research is to combine observational and interview data collection techniques; the observational data could contribute to informing and guiding qualitative ethnographic interviewing with these teachers or students can lead to very rich, high-quality data (Punch & Oancea, 2009:198). Furthermore, the observation data is often collected by a combination of field notes (which involves detailed researchers' intuitions, impressions, and even questions as they emerge) allowing the researcher to analyze language use in greater depth later (Mackey & Gass, 2005). While the

observation mainly happened in the experimental group of this research and had a one-session observation for the control group. The observation of the control group aimed to record the conventional teaching methods and the interaction between the teacher and students. Since the teacher carried out the situated-demonstration of the listening strategy instruction in the experimental group, it is necessary to observe and make less structured field notes to record what the teacher did and how, as well as the students' reflection in the class. The aims of classroom observation were:

a) to record the classroom interactions between teachers and students,
b) to record and confirm what percentages of teachers carry out the listening strategies as shown in the designed booklet, to see if there are any differences between the practical teaching and the ideal teaching plans, and
c) to add more information on how the teacher teaching in the class performed, besides of the teaching methods and contents show in the booklet, if teaching methods were naturally performed.

3.7 Analytical methods

Qualitative content analysis (QCA) is a research method that has been widely used to describe the meaning of materials that require some degree of interpretation. It can be applied to a wider range of text materials, for example, interview transcription, field notes, and verbal reports. Specifically, qualitative content analysis is 'done by classifying the material as instances of the categories of a coding frame' (Schreier, 2012:1), and 'a code is a researcher-generated construct that symbolizes or "translates" data' (Vogt *et al*, 2014:13). In this analysis process, the research questions contribute to specifying what to analyze and what to create from the data source ((Elo & Kyngäs, 2008; Schreier, 2012). In order to avoid the loss of complexity in meanings of the content analysis, the data should be classified to concepts and describe the research phenomenon (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008; Heieh &Shannon, 2005) through creating categories, concept models or conceptual map (Elo *et al,* 2014; Elo & Kyngäs, 2008; Morgan, 1993). This coding process is important as it contributes to recognize and identify those themes and concepts and examples from the data (Rubin and Rubin, 2012). Moreover, for the purpose of improving the reliability of the coding, I will follow Goh's (1998) method - code-recode, which requires recording the same content after five months to see

if there is a code-recode agreement. Accordingly, in the following sections, I will present the process of qualitative content analysis on the data of verbal reports and interviews, along with data analysis and findings.

3.7.1 Content analysis

Content analysis is a powerful and widely used qualitative data reduction technique. It is a technique that is used to extract information from material (usually verbal) by systematically and objectively identifying specified characteristics of the material (Stone, Dunphy, Smith, & Ogilvie, 1966, Smith, 2000). In other words, it is a 'systematic, replicable technique for compressing many words of text into fewer content categories based on explicit rules of coding' (Stemler, 2014: 144). Content analysis allows the researcher to enhance understanding of the data through testing theoretical issues, as it could assumed that when classified into the same categories, words, phrases and the like share the same meaning (Cavanagh: 1997). Qualitative content analysis for this study is defined as a research method that the subjective interpretation of the content of the text material by systematically classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns. The goal of the content analysis is 'to provide knowledge and understanding of the phenomenon under study' (Downe-Wambold, 1992: 314), and the outcome of the analysis is concepts or categories describing the phenomenon. It is a systematic coding and categorizing approach used for exploring a large number of textual information unobtrusively to determine trends and patterns of words used, their frequency, relationships, and the structures and discourses of communication (Mayring, 2000; Pope et al., 2006; Gbrich, 2012; Vaisnorado, Turuen and Bondas, 2013). In the research, the data from interviews, verbal reports and field notes will be analyzed through content analysis.

3.7.2 Two approaches of content analysis

Interview transcript, field notes and observations provide a descriptive account of the study, but they do not provide any explanations behind these results. However, the researcher has to make sense of the data that has been collected by exploring

and interpreting them (Burnard, Gill, Stewart, treasure, & Chadwick, 2008:429-430). There are two fundamental approaches to analyzing qualitative data: the deductive approach and the inductive approach. Deductive approach is recommended for the studies where researchers are already aware of the knowledge about the phenomenon, or when the structure of analysis is operationalized on the previous knowledge and the purpose of the study is theory testing (Kyngas, & Vanhanen, 1999). The deductive data is based on an earlier theory or model and therefore it moves from the general to the specific (Burns & Grove, 2005). Conversely, an inductive approach is relevant to data analysis with little or no predetermined theory, structure or framework (Burnard, Gill, Stewart, treasure, & Chadwick, 2008:429). Therefore, fragment knowledge is observed and then combined into a larger whole or general statement (Chinn & Kramer, 1983).

3.7.3 Content analysis on the qualitative data set

Since the data was collected in different methods and different times (see chapter 4), the way of content analysis may be varied. Even though, the purpose of the content analysis is attempting to test the hypotheses and explore the answers to the research questions. Accordingly, in order to clarify and facilitate further data analysis, the researching is attempting to explain one's methodologies of applying the approaches of content analysis into the data sets. According to Smith (2000), the content-analytic research always starts from the research questions, goals of research or what is to be identified and measured. Therefore, it is important to match the research questions to the individual instruments when doing the analysis.

Interviews

As stated in the previous sections and chapter 4, the data of interviews that aim to find out the learners' attitude, belief and motivation to English listening comprehension, and the factors that may also influence their perceived- value of listening comprehension training. Though data from the questionnaire is designed to elicit the response of learning attitudes from the participants, a combination of semi-structured interviews were conducted with selected participants is suggested

in other studies (e.g. Wong, 2005). In this study, all the interviews were recorded and transcribed in Chinese (Appendix 8). In order to keep the accuracy of participants' opinions, the coding process may carry out on the Chinese transcription firstly, and then translated with a back-translation of the data. The interview responses will be analyzed by using the 'framework' technique of qualitative data analysis (Ritchie and Spencer, 1994). This is an inductive process that involves 1) initially reading through all the transcriptions for the purpose of getting familiar with the data; 2) identifying the recurring themes or categories by re-reading; 3) indexing or coding data into themes or categories; 4) creating a framework of categories; 5) refining and reducing categories through grouping them where appropriate, and 6) checking and re-coding responses using the refined framework of categories (Wong, 2005). This coding process is specified and displayed in the next section.

field notes

Since the students of the experimental group were separated in three classes, the researcher attended all of the classes every week to write down the field notes (with three colors) in English (Appendix 9). The field notes include feedback of teacher in the experimental group carrying out the listening strategies, the interactions between the teacher and students, as well as the cooperation work between students (social affective strategies, see chapter 3). In fact, the testing results of pre- and post–test and the questionnaire are used in the studies of listening comprehension proficiency and listening strategies area. However, as the booklet design is one of the interventions in this study, the filed notes the field notes are used to provide to provide the confirmatory data to record the situation of listening strategy instruction, the framework of content analysis will be based upon the Oxford's (1990) and O'Malley & Chamot (1989), a deductive method to coding the data first. For example, if there are notes that show teacher's teaching performance e.g. 'th*e teacher demonstrated a repetitive strategy at first, then students started to repeat and discovered the answer while repeating'*, which could be code as repeating of metacognitive strategies. Moreover, there may be some unexpected listening strategies or more findings from the field notes, the inductive approach will be carried out to code the themes and create a framework of categories, for example, '*the students sitting on the last two rows didn't*

concentrate on the listening, they seemed quite sleepy', 'students actively discussed with peers' could be coded as one of students' performance in the listening comprehension training which may also explain the quantitative findings of learning attitudes and perceived- value of listening comprehension training from the questionnaire.

verbal reports

The verbal reports are reflected in process of students while listening. In order to encourage students to write more detailed information, they could choose either Chinese or English or a mix of those to complete reports. Therefore, in order to facilitate content analysis, I will read all of the reports, paraphrase or translate into English for further coding (see Appendix 7). The analysis of this verbal report will start from the deductive approaches, in other words, the students' cognitive process of listening comprehension from the verbal reports will be coded in the perspectives of the categories of listening strategies first. Meanwhile, I will also carry out the inductive approach to code some of the methods if the students use these to comprehend and work effectively.

3.7.4 Coding procedure and framework

The sources of qualitative data in this research mainly include: 1) verbal reports from the students after pre- and post- tests, 2) audio recorded from students' interviews. The software Nvivo 11.0 was used to analyze the qualitative data. In order to highlight and analyze the data in the Nvivo software, I typed all of the verbal reports (292 in total) in word processing software before importing into Nvivo. As for the interview, the researcher made the verbatim transcription of the interview through an online software named oTranscribe. This software contributes to not only tracking and repeating audio easily but is also convenient for coding and saving in the computer's files. After completing all the transcription, the researched imported all of the files into Nvivo and got them ready for coding.

The coding process of verbal reports

The verbal reports were carried out in the process of pre- and post-listening tests, all the participants had 30 seconds to do the reports after answering each question. Therefore, the verbal reports were being collected twice, which were called pre-verbal reports and post-verbal reports. In total, 148 verbal reports are from the control group (72 each time), and 152 come from the experimental group (76 respectively in pre and post). Moreover, the content of each verbal report was written down on a piece of A4 size paper by each participant. As considering the factors like language preferences and language proficiency, all of the participants were free to choose either language or both English and Chinese to write verbal reports.

In the process of content analysis, coding is one of the important steps, as Strauss (1987: 27) said 'any researcher who wishes to become proficient at doing qualitative analysis must learn to code well and easily. The excellence of the research rests in large part on the excellence of the coding'. In the following sections the researcher is going to take the pre-verbal reports from the control group as an example to demonstrate the whole coding process, which was carried out repeatedly in the other verbal reports.

The data of verbal reports aim to find out whether there are similarities or differences in strategy use by learners with various English proficiency (see chapter 4), and the reasons to explain how and in what ways they came to conclusion of their answers to the listening questions. These answers may indicate some listening strategies that they applied in the listening comprehension tests. Therefore, a concept-driven-deductive strategy was carried out to build a coding frame, as this deductive strategy is making use of knowledge from different sources, for example, a theory, previous research, everyday experience or logic (Schreier, 2012). This study will highlight and code verbal reports which are based upon the theoretical framework of Oxford (1990), in which the listening strategies are divided into direct and indirect strategies respectively (see Chapter 2). Figure

3-1 presents the process of how the researcher carried out the coding and analysis as well as the explanation of each step.

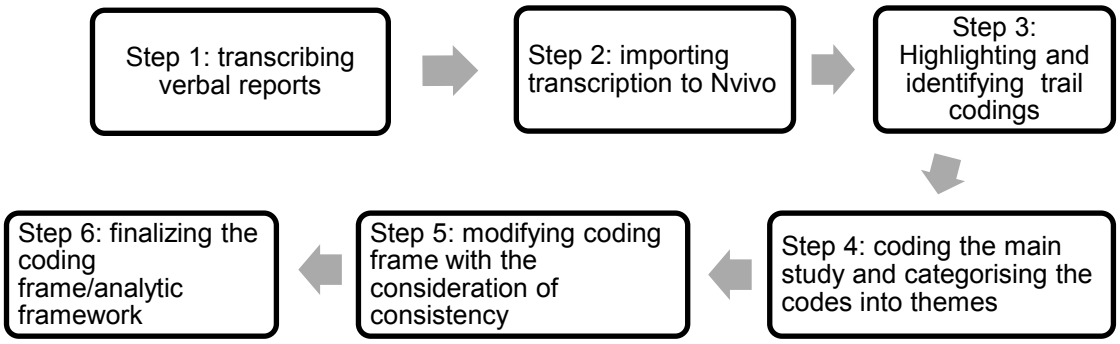

Figure 3- 1 Coding process for verbal report

At the beginning of the content analysis, the researcher had translated the content of verbal reports into Chinese and asked a bilingual (Chinese and English) English tutor to carry out a back-translation. Then all the content was transcribed and imported into a profile within Nvivo. Before a large amount of content is analysed, it is best practice to carry out a pilot phase in the first place (Schreier, 2012). The pilot phase is to test the researcher's coding frame on a part of the material which is called the trail coding (Früh, 2007). In deciding how many samples should be chosen to include in the trial coding, it is necessary to take a balance between variability and practicability (Schreier, 2012) into consideration, which means the differences in the material should be not only adequately represented but also to achieve practical considerations. Besides, if the researcher were to carry out the trial coding on other materials, it may be different from the main study in various ways and less likely to describe the researcher's material for which they are concentrating on within my analysis. Accordingly, for the purpose of avoiding the misleading coding frame and obtaining an in-depth description from my data, the researcher selected between 10%-20% of the material for the trial coding. This trail coding process was carried out each time before coding the main pre- and post-verbal reports for both groups, which happened four times in the study. This process allows the researcher to identify the inevitable disadvantages of the coding frame at an early stage, and keeps consistency and makes adjustments to categories that may be not suitable to apply.

According to the reference numbers of students in this research, the researcher was able to track every student's listening comprehension scores, verbal report, questionnaire. Based on the results of the pre- and post- tests in the control group, the researcher firstly started coding with fifteen students' (with higher, middle and lower listening comprehension levels) verbal reports out of 72 as the materials for the trial coding, it helped the researcher to take different situations into consideration when coding and avoided a misleading coding frame. The researcher highlighted and summarized the students' explanations for each item on the verbal reports. At the beginning of the coding process, the researcher identified 15 free codes, however, some of them were similar to some extent. Therefore, the researcher then coded the themes into some categories with a focus on how these themes express relevant and similar concepts, with some adjustments and changes. This second cycle coding contributed to reducing the codes to 8 and building up data sets as Table 3-8.

Table 3- 8 The second cycle coding example

Objectives	Codes	Examples from verbal reports
To identify in what way do the students use listening strategies to comprehend listening materials.	• Gender clues help to choose an answer • Comprehend and summarize in English and (or) Chinese. • Briefly read questions to predict answer and take notes in Chinese • Get the answer by analyzing the options • Underline the key words from the questions • Wh-words • Try to write down the original sentences as much as possible, then comprehend the meaning and answer questions • Time words	• Male: next time you treat. • They all have homework and notebooks; No 直达的 *(non-stop)* flights • 先读题，总结时间， 我们的车在 10:45 开 *(read questions first, then summarize the time in the conversation, which bus will leave at 10:45)*. • Look at the four options, and pay attention to the key words, e.g. no direct flight • Eric tigers, ice-cream, • Why; Who; what • It sounds that we would have a good time • No. 9 -10： Key time words: tomorrow afternoon; ten day's time

Table 3-8 presented an example of the coding process in the control group for the pre-verbal reports. It includes three columns: 1) the objective is identifying what listening strategies the students use to comprehend materials and obtain answers to the questions; 2) Code is an abstract or summary of each item from verbal reports, as a code in qualitative research is mostly presented as a word or short phrase that 'symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and /or evocative attribute for a portion of language' (Saldaña, 2015:2). 3). An example has been given after each code. Some of the content of reports are in Chinese, which have been translated and shown in English with parentheses. According to the second cycle coding and the categories of listening strategies (see chapter two), the researcher has reviewed the data again and generated it into Oxford's (1990) listening strategies and identify the themes (see Table 3-9).

Table 3- 9 Coding frame for pre-verbal reports in the control group

Codes	Listening strategies	Themes	Classification of Language learning strategy
• **Time words** • **Try to write down the original sentences as much as possible, then comprehend the meaning and answer questions**	• Remember the key words • Remember the original sentences	Memory	Memory strategy (Direct strategies)
• **Comprehend and summarize into Chinese and English** • **Briefly read questions to predict answer and take notes in Chinese**	• Make a summary • Take notes/highlight important information • Preview questions	Analyze expression	Cognitive strategy (Direct strategies)
• **Gender clues help to choose answers** • **Get the answer by analyzing the options**	• Non-linguistics knowledge • Judge the options based on knowledge of context, personal experience, and text structure	Guess intelligently	Compensation strategy (Direct strategies)
• **Underline the key words from the questions** • **Wh-words**	• Identify the purpose of listening tasks	Select attention for special aspect of a listening task	Metacognitive strategy (Indirect strategies)

Coding contributes to the organization and categorization of similar coded data into groups or 'families' as they have some similar meaning, characteristic and connotations (Weber,1990). Table 3-9 has shown how the coding frames being established. According to the Oxford (1990)'s learning strategy classification, these eight codes were identified and summarized into different eight items under the column of listening strategies. Therefore, these listening strategies can be generated into four themes, which are short-term memory, intelligent guess, analysed expressions and selected attention for special aspects of a listening task. Based on this, Table 3-8 has shown any themes that are related to listening strategy use in the pre-verbal reports were categorized. Four main categories were created: memory, analysis of expressions, intelligent guess, and selected attention for special aspects of a listening task.

1. Direct strategies
    a) Memory strategies
        i. Memory
            1. Remember the key words
            2. Remember the original sentences
    b) Cognitive strategies
        i. Analysis of expressions
            1. Make a summary
            2. Take notes/highlight important information
            3. Preview questions
    c) Compensation strategies
        i. Intelligent guessing
            1. Non-linguistics knowledge
            2. Judge the options based on knowledge of context, personal experience and text structure
2. Indirect strategies
    a) Metacognitive strategies
        i. Select attention for special aspects of a listening task
        ii. Identify purpose of the listening comprehension questions

Table 3- 10 A summary of coding frame for pre-verbal report in the control group

Table 3-10 summarized and illustrated the coding frame of pre-verbal reports in the control group. The first category memory includes the memories of keywords and the original sentences while listening. In other words, participates tried to memorize the content that helps to comprehend listening materials. The second category of expression analysis is mainly in regards to paraphrasing or summarization of the listening materials, taking notes or to highlight important information. Guess intelligently is the third category that includes the non-linguistics knowledge (e.g. background noise, the gender and intonation), and how the personal knowledge or experience contributing to comprehend the materials. The last category is from the indirect strategy, named the metacognitive strategy. In this strategy, listeners concentrate on the key information or question words by underlining to focus their attention and become more efficient listeners.

In the last coding step, it is important to check the reliability of the coding frame. The systematic and consistent nature of QCA contributes to increasing the reliability of the research. The researcher looked at the consistency of the coding by comparing across points in time. When the coding is compared by one person at different points in time, ‘the coding frame is considered reliable to the extent that the coding is consistent’ (Schreier, 2012:167). Therefore, after six weeks of first round coding, the researcher coded I coded the same samples again and achieved similar results. it can be concluded that this coding approach is reliable and the results are consistent with the analytical framework. The final coding frame (categories and themes) has been established, which could provide a good start of data analysis (Silverman, 2014).

The coding process of students’ interviews

The interviews of students are aiming to find out how the listening strategy instruction shapes the learners’ self-efficacy belief and their attitudes perceived

value of listening comprehension training. While any changes of learning attitude may be fragmented, the inductive approach is recommended (Lauri & Kyngäs 2005). Based on themes learners' self-efficacy (motivation, attitude, belief) and perceived value of listening comprehension training, the researcher writes an interpretation of the data through inductive content analysis. Being different from the coding procedure verbal reporting, the transcriptions of interviews have been translated into English first, then coded in an inductive approach. Figure 3-2 displays the coding procedure of the interview process.

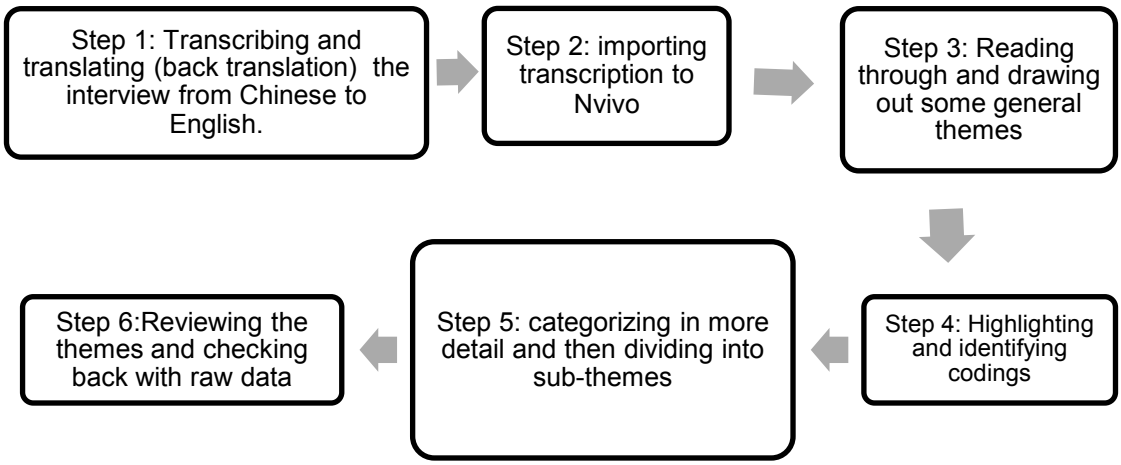

Figure 3- 2 Coding process for students' interviews

Students' interviews were exploring and elaborating significant insights and outcomes of listening comprehension training, it includes how students value listening comprehension training, to what extent students understand listening strategy use and how listening comprehension training benefit students. In order to present students' responses in the interviews clearly, each student has a reference number. As previously mentioned in chapter four, the first two letters in the code stands for the group (EG for experimental group, CG for control group), the number stands for student's number in the group, the last letter finally stands for the listening proficiency achieved level (H for higher, P for middle level with big progress, L for lower). EG1-04H, for example, represents the experimental group student number 1-04 of a high proficiency level. Following the above coding process, the findings of the two groups (16 students) are presented, discussed and compared in the two aspects: 1) the factors that influence perceived value of listening comprehension training; 2) The outcome of listening comprehension training.

Table 3- 11 The main aspects of interview findings from both groups

Aspects	Factors	Experimental group	Control group
The factors that influence the perceived value of listening comprehension training	The situated-demonstration of strategy instruction	√	
	Listening strategy related listening comprehension practice	√	
	An increase in interest the listening strategy use	√	
	Limited listening comprehension methods introduced		√
	The pressure from peers		√
The outcome of listening comprehension training	The belief and attitude changes of being listeners	√	
	A promoted motivation of future independent listening comprehension practice	√	√

3.8 Summary

This chapter started with an overview of the research design, specified the aims of the study, as well as the research questions. Then it introduced the background of the participants, providing empirical evidence to prove the students of both groups were at the same overall English language proficiency. The research methods have also been reported in details, which included the data collection instruments and the coding process of the interview and verbal report.

Chapter 4 The findings of listening comprehension performance- (pre- and post-tests & field notes)

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, it aims to present the results of the quantitative findings in terms of the students' listening comprehension performance after the treatment. Section 4.2 focuses on the students' listening comprehension performance in pre-and post-tests. It reports the effect of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction on listening comprehension performance by comparing the pre- and post-test scores between the experimental group and the control group. After reporting the general effect of strategy instruction on listening comprehension performance, section 4.3 is showing the results of listening comprehension training at different listening proficiency levels of both groups. After presenting the results of the tests, section 4.4 provides an inside view from the field notes of the experimental group's students listening performance in the class. It records the process of the intervention and reports the changes in terms of students' learning performance in the class. It also compares with the situation of the conventional listening comprehension training in the control group. The final part is shown the summary of this chapter (4.5).

4.2 The result of Listening comprehension performance

a) A comparison of pre-test scores between two groups in English listening comprehension

Listening performance was measured by an audio listening comprehension test that was developed by the ministry of education to test English language learners in China. The listening test was designed to measure English listening comprehension levels. What follows is the results of the test data analysis. It begins with a comparison of the mean scores of the students between experimental and control groups in the pre- and post-test. Then, the researcher

will adjust the mean score by using analysis of covariance and comparison across proficiency levels.

The raw mean scores of the two groups of the study in the listening comprehension test before and after the treatment are graphically represented in figure 4-1 below. This graph illustrates that the students in two groups show similar scores in the pre-test and an increased trend in the post-test, which are from 64.53 to 67.84 (experimental group) and from 60.90 to 63.06 (control group) respectively.

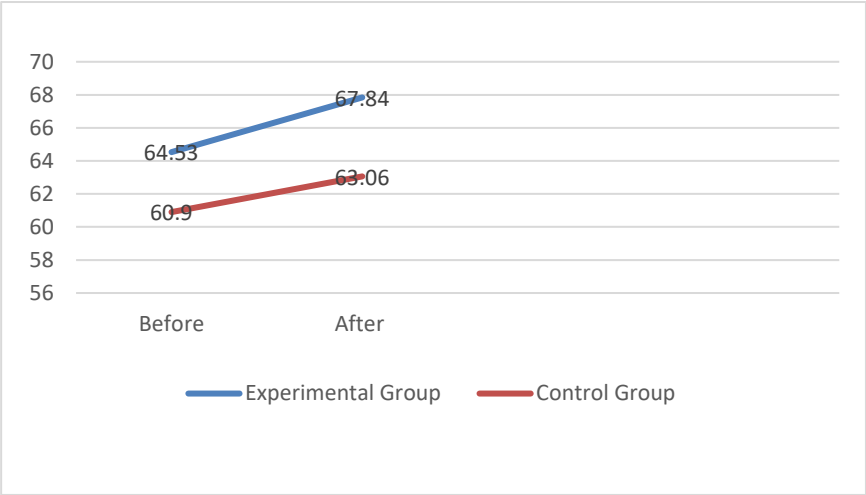

Figure 4- 1 Raw means of the two groups in the before and after the treatment

This increase might suggest that listening comprehension training to some extent enhance students' listening performance. The most improvement in listening performance was achieved by the experimental group. This improvement is greater than the improvement achieved by the control group. In order to provide more valid findings and test whether the control and experimental groups were equal before the treatment in the first place, an independent t-test was carried out to compare the mean findings of English listening pre-tests between two groups.

Table 4- 1 The information of participant teachers in the research

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre-test scores	Experimental group	74	64.53	16.984
	Control group	72	60.90	15.549

Table 4- 2 A comparison of pre-test scores between groups

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-Test scores	Equal variances assumed	1.626	.204	1.344	144	.181	3.624	2.697	-1.707	8.955
	Equal variances not assumed			1.345	143.474	.181	3.624	2.694	-1.700	8.949

The experimental group students *(N=74)* were associated with the pre-test score *M=64.53 (SD=16.984).* By comparison, the control group students (*N=72)* were associated with a numerically smaller pre-test score *M=60.90 (SD=15.594).* To test the hypothesis that the experimental group and the control group were associated with no significantly different mean pre-tests scores, an independent samples t-test was performed. As equality of variances is the pre-requisite to any comparison of two independent means, equality of the variance was calculated

using Leven's test. According to the analysis done by SPSS the p-value was calculated to be 0.204 which was bigger than 0.05, and the two values in standard deviation are very similar, so it could be assumed that with 95% confidence the variances were equal. An independent sampled t-test was needed to compare equality of the means for independent groups; accordingly, a two tailed-t-test was utilized for comparing the means. Since the p-value was 0.181, which was bigger than 0.05, it was confirmed that the mean scores between the two groups were not significantly different. Therefore, the hypothesis remained and the listening proficiency of two groups was initially equal.

b) A comparison of post-test scores between two groups in English listening comprehension

It was confirmed that the experimental and control group had the same English proficiency level before listening comprehension training. In order to test the effectiveness of listening strategy training, two groups of students were tested by the post-test after the treatment. To see whether the experimental group with situated-demonstration listening strategy instruction had significantly improved than the control group, the means of post-test scores were tested by using an independent t-test investigated any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control group in post-test.

The experimental group students *(N=74)* were related to the post-test score *M=67.84 (SD=13.651).* By comparison, the control group students (*N=72)* were associated with numerically smaller pre-test scores *M=63.06 (SD=13.096).* To test the hypothesis that there is no difference in terms of the post-test score between experimental and control groups. As the results of the statistical analysis conducted by SPSS in the following tables show, the p-value was measured to be 0.033, which turned out to be less than 0.05. Therefore, we conclude that the hypothesis of equality of means here is rejected and the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group.

Table 4- 3 Summary statistics of post-test scores of listening comprehension performance

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post-test scores	Experimental Group	74	67.84	13.651	1.587
	Control Group	72	63.06	13.096	1.543

Table 4- 4 A comparison of post-test scores between groups

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Post-test scores	Equal variances assumed	.087	.769	2.159	144	.033	4.782	2.215	.404	9.160
	Equal variances not assumed			2.160	143.972	.032	4.782	2.214	.407	9.158

c) Summary for the result of a comparison between pre- and post-test

To sum up, the results of the national entrance English exam indicate that the two groups of students have shown a similar overall English proficiency in grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension and writing. Through a comparison between the two groups, as we can see from the summary statistics table 4-5 below, based on the results from the pre-test of listening comprehension, the p-value was 0.181that showed that the listening proficiency of all the students was at the same level. After the treatment, the same students took the post-test, and the results of the post-test have shown a significant difference between two groups, which means the experimental group has better performance than the control group.

Table 4- 5 Summary statistics for a comparison between pre- and post-test scores

Tests	Groups	N	Mean	SD	df	t-value	Sig.
Pre-tests	Experimental group	74	64.53	16.984			
	Control group	72	60.90	15.549	144	1.344	.181
Post-tests	Experimental group	74	67.84	13.651			
	Control group	72	63.06	13.096	144	2.159	.033

4.3 The effect of listening comprehension training on listening comprehension performance at different levels in the experimental group

4.3.1 The descriptive statistics of students' listening comprehension performance at different levels in the experimental group

In order to find out how the treatment affect the students in different levels, according to the National University Entrance Exam -English, the researcher had divided the students into three levels (lower, middle and higher level). The students whose scores were under 100 were in the lower group, those who got between 101 to 120 were identified as the middle-level students, and the students whose scores were over 120 were in the higher-level group. Therefore, there were 16 students in the lower-level group, 38 students were in the middle level and 20 students were in the higher- level.

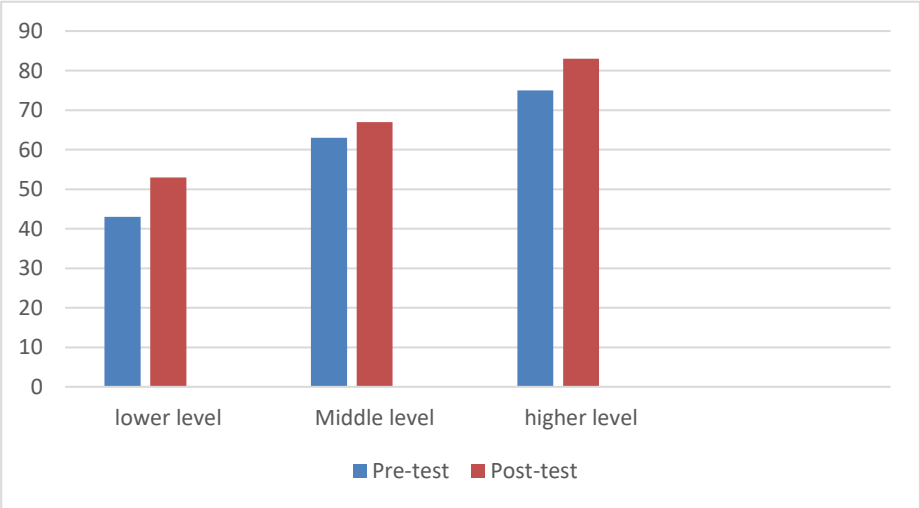

Figure 4- 2 Raw means of the three levels of experimental group students before and after the treatment

Figure 4-2 above graphically shows the differences in listening performance between before and after the treatment at lower, middle and higher-level. These means represent the mean scores that have incorporated in the pre-test and show the improvement at lower and middle-level students, however a slight decrease is evident in the higher- level group. It shows that the lower-level students have made the biggest progress in which the means increase from 43 to 53. Besides, compared with the mean of pre-test 63, the middle-level students performed slightly better in post-test (67). As expected, the higher -level students have outperformed both the lower- and middle-level students on both pre-and post-tests, which are 83 and 75 respectively. The figure has indicated that the students with lower and middle listening proficiency performed better in the post-test than pre-test. However, the higher-level group students have shown higher listening attainment in both tests, the mean of post-test is slightly lower however.

4.3.2 The paired t-test results at three levels in the experimental group

The results of pre- and post-tests from 20 lower-level students have been compared through a paired t-test. As the descriptive data of the increasing suggests, the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction does work on improving the lower- level students in their listening comprehension performance (p=.006). Likewise, the middle-level students (N=38) have also benefited from the treatment, whose P value (p=.04) is smaller than 0.05. However, situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction was less helpful for the 18 higher-level students. Although the p-value was .000 which was less than 0.05 which shown the listening strategy instruction does make a difference. The pre-test mean (83) was higher than the post-test mean (75), which indicates that the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction does not contribute to higher-level students' improvement in listening comprehension. This result also provided evidence that that the strategy instruction may be helpful for the lower and middle-level students however less helpful for the higher- level students.

4.3.3 The descriptive statistics of students' listening comprehension performance at different levels in the control group

Likewise, the control group students were also divided into three levels, Figure 4-3 below shows the differences in listening performance between lower, middle and higher-level before and after the treatment. As we can see, there is an increase of means between pre- and post-tests at the lower level, which goes up from 47 to 56. While the means of higher-level show a decreased trend, in which the means drop from 71 (pre-test) to 62 (post-test). The means of middle-level maintains a similar result in both tests. These are 62 and 64 respectively. These results may indicate that conventional listening comprehension training may affect the lower-level students' listening comprehension performance positively, but it has little influence on the middle and higher- level students.

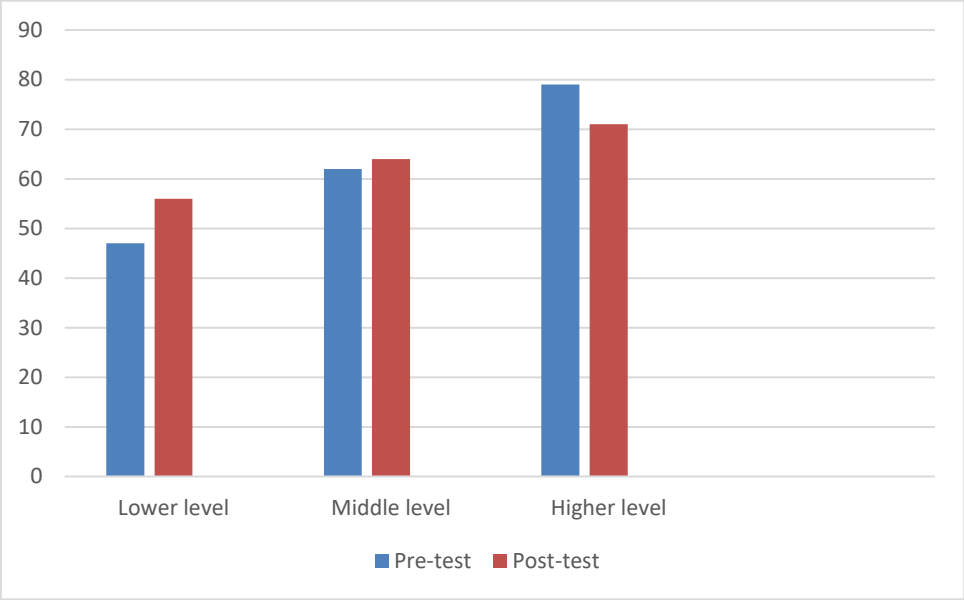

Figure 4- 3 Raw means of the three levels of control group students before and after the conventional listening comprehension training

4.3.4 The results of the paired t-tests at three levels in the control group

The results of the control group students' pre- and post-tests were measured in the paired t-tests with different listening proficiency levels. 10 students were at the lower level, 46 middle-level students and 15 advanced students. The paired t-tests were carried out to compare the means of three levels respectively. The P-value of lower-level students was .013. Which indicated the conventional listening comprehension training positively affected the lower-level student listening

comprehension. However, the p-value of the middle level (p=.513) and higher-level(p=.345), it indicated that the conventional listening comprehension training has little influence on middle and higher-level students' listening comprehension improvement.

4.4 The observation of students' performance in the listening training class

As mentioned in the methodology chapters, the experimental group has been observed from the beginning by the researcher. Based on the field notes, part of the findings records and reflects the students' listening comprehension performance changes in the class throughout the intervention from the perspective of the observer. The findings of observation notes could provide confirmatory evidence to the quantitative findings in this study.

4.4.1 The findings of field notes in the experimental group

a) Various interactions between the teacher and students

The experiment group students are from the three classes, therefore the teacher delivered the same teaching content for each class, three times a week. In one of the classes, students show less interaction with the teacher at the beginning of the intervention, this may be because the students have come into a new environment and it takes time for them to get used to the people and the learning environment. It is also possibly limited by their listening skills, students feel harder to catch the information, comprehend and get the answer. As the field notes have shown:

> *'Only part of students* had *answered the questions and communicated with others in terms of what they have heard';*
>
> *'Not much discussion took place among students to reflect on the listening tasks or share what they had heard. I noticed some students had conveyed to others, the speaking speed is too*

fast, they can't understand. They seem a bit embarrassed and worried'.

However, this situation gradually changed after a few weeks. The students got used to different types of listening tasks and following strategy instruction. From the notes, it can be seen that the students have developed a better understanding of listening materials and more discussions and interactions have been promoted in the class.

'Some of the students were laughing while listening, because of the amusing listening materials. This reaction indicates they are being relaxed while listening and they understand the content quite well'.

'The students look like they quite enjoy listening. They look calmer when they get involved in the listening tasks. I can tell from their face, they concentrate on the tasks while listening. When it comes to the discussion, I can hear lots of conversations are going on, like checking answers and sharing of thoughts etc.'.

'The students are getting used to using the listening strategies, as when they are asked how to get answers, most of them would like to share in the class and talk through what strategies or methods they used while listening'.

In addition, the teacher in the situate-demonstration of listening strategy instruction class kept checking with students in terms of their answers and listening methods by conferring with asking students. The later field notes have shown that more students were able to achieve correct answers to the listening tasks and were able to report more information after listening to longer listening materials. For example,

'The teacher played the audio first, then she asked students to exchange their answer with others. She asked students to tell their

answers, 90% of their answers are correct in the task of filling the missing words'.

'For the difficult task, the students asked to repeat and translate sentence-by-sentence, 90% of students could completely repeat it and translate'.

These findings reflect the changes in students' learning performance and their actual reactions to the treatment during the intervention period. An increasing correct rate of listening tasks and more interactive classes provide evidence that the students were making progress in different ways, for example, the understanding of the strategy instruction. This progress may not only be found from the post-test results, but also from their learning performance in the class.

b) Advanced listeners' performance in the training

Another interesting finding from the observation notes is that some students in the experimental group are more active and they have shown good understanding and listening comprehension skills from the beginning of the intervention. For example, in week one, the teacher delivered the same teaching content to one of the classes in the experimental group, but received different reflections from the students. As the notes mentioned:

'When the teacher asked students to check their answer and share their methods with others, some of the students are confident to explain the reasons to others. All the students are happy to share and they follow the teacher's instruction very well'.

'The correct rate of complete listening comprehension tasks is higher in this class. The teacher checked how many students understand a difficult task, 8 out of 25 students got 100% correct, 14 students got 98% correct'.

This probably because there are more advanced listeners in this class, as these advanced listeners had already achieved a certain level of listening comprehension skills, they could follow the instruction well from the beginning. The instruction may contribute to reminding them of listening comprehension strategies and methods, but less likely to achieve a more advanced level. This finding may explain the previous quantitative results that the strategy instruction may affect students with different listening proficiency differently, which is more helpful for the less skilled listeners rather than advanced listeners.

4.4.2 The findings of field notes in the control group

The researcher observed one conventional listening comprehension training class and wrote down the whole teaching process and the interaction between teacher and students in that class. Here are the field notes:

The teacher explained the vocabulary before listening, then the teacher outlined the passage that had been heard, the students were then asked to take notes while listening, for the second time. The teacher paid attention to the detailed explanations and information of the listening materials. Listening comprehension methods were also mentioned whilst teaching. For example, she suggested students to write '<' stand for 'under', 'snw' for social networking. When the students finished the questions to the listening task, the teacher still asked students to take notes as much as they were able. The teacher played the same listening materials several times, each time had different questions to ask the students to find out or write it down. The teacher checked the students' notes afterward. The students sit in the first two rows were following teacher quite well. Unfortunately, the researcher noticed some of students sit back had fallen asleep. The teacher liked to explain and analyse the listening materials, trying best to make the students understand the listening materials by linking the key notes to paraphrase. For some students at the beginning, they had detailed notes, they could follow the teacher and paraphrase the listening materials, however most of them sat and had no interaction with the teacher. The teacher spent one training session (1.5 hours) on two listening tasks.

Compared with the experimental group, conventional listening comprehension training is more teacher-centered. In order to enhance their understanding of the listening materials, the teacher asked students to do different activities by repeating listening to the same materials (e.g. repeat listening to the materials, listen and answer questions from the teacher, use abbreviation to facilitate note taking, take notes). It was shown that, students were learning and using the listening strategies through these activities, e.g. repeating, asking for clarification and note- taking). However, the teacher did not explain the reasons behind these different practices, it was not a clear instruction for the students. For example, the teacher had asked students to take notes, but the teacher did not explicitly introduce the note-taking being one of the listening strategies, nor explain the reasons why note-taking would be helpful in listening comprehension. Therefore, the students were more likely to follow instruction in the class, rather than develop awareness or understandings of listening strategy use. A result of this could be that, repetition may be helpful for students to enhance their short-term memory, but a very limited explanation of listening comprehension methods and strategies may influence students' listening comprehension performance and listening strategy use.

4.5 Summary

This chapter reported the findings of students' listening comprehension performance in both groups. The students were at the same level in terms of their comprehensive English language ability and the listening comprehension proficiency. The results of independent t-test had shown that the experimental group outperformed than the control group. And the results of paired t-tests provided evidence that the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction, benefit lower and middle-level students more than advanced listeners. While the conventional listening comprehension training was helpful for the lower-level students, it is unlikely contributed to improving the middle and higher-level students' listening comprehension performance. These results were supported by the findings of field notes that provided the quantitative data with more insight information.

Chapter 5 The findings of questionnaire

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the quantitative results of the questionnaire are presented, these mainly report the perceived value of listening comprehension training, listening strategy use, and self-efficacy development. These results are presented in the form of descriptive statistics and the paired t-test results respectively in sections 5.3, 5.3 and 5.4. Besides, according to the means of each listening strategy item, the most frequently used five listening strategies have been selected and presented. The whole chapter is summarised in the final section (5.5).

5.2 The effect of listening comprehension training on the perceived value of listening comprehension training

5.2.1 Description of statistics

In this section, it presents the findings from the questionnaire. As the researcher has mentioned in Chapter three, the questionnaire with the same content was delivered twice, which took place before and after the intervention in both two groups. The scores range from 1, which is never or almost never true, to 5, which is always or almost always true. The descriptive statistics were summarized in order to access data distribution and provide an overview of the perceived value of listening comprehension training, listening strategies use and source of self-efficacy information. And the percentage of each item of the pre- and post-questionnaires have been calculated and reported in Appendix 15.

Section A perceived value of listening comprehension training includes ten items, which measure the value of listening comprehension training, understanding of listening comprehension training and expectations on listening comprehension training (see Appendix 4). For example, *item 5 I like to attend listening comprehension training every week.* The participants' choice to this statement reflects their willingness to attend listening comprehension training, which indicates how important the learners think about listening comprehension training and to what extent they are interested in receiving listening comprehension

training. Through a comparison of section A between the pre-questionnaire and post questionnaire, the raw means could reflect the average of most learners' perceived value of listening comprehension training. These results have been transferred from numbers to graph, which show a more direct trend of this value development from both two groups.

As we can see from Table 5-1 the descriptive data of perceived value of listening comprehension training, experimental group students give the lowest score 2 (usually not true of me) and the highest 5 (always or most true of me) in the pre-questionnaire to reflect their value of listening comprehension training. This range has positively narrowed down from 3 (somewhat true of me) to 5 (always or most true of me) in the post-questionnaire. The lowest score has been up to 3, which shows students' positive value development when they judge how important it is to receive the listening comprehension training. The similar increase trend could also be found in the control group. The lowest score around 1 (never or almost never true of me) shows a negative result from the pre-questionnaire, however there is still a slight increase from 1.64 to 1.92, which almost reaches to a value of 2 (usually not true of me). And the highest scores from pre-and post-questionnaire almost reaches to a value of 5. From the comparison between the means within the group, it can be seen that the gained score of participants in the experimental group is 0.41 while the gained score of participants in the control group is 0.09. From this result, it reveals that both group students may value more listening comprehension training after the treatment, and the improved mean score in EG is higher than the control group.

Table 5- 1 Summary of the perceived value of listening comprehension training descriptive statistics of two groups

	Pre-questionnaire				Post-questionnaire			
	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Experimental group	2.00	5.00	3.83	0.639	3.00	5.00	4.24	0.475
Control group	1.64	4.56	3.51	0.633	1.91	4.91	3.60	0.635

This table provides an overview by displaying numbers, the following graph - means of reported perceived value of listening comprehension training shows, this trend of changes by two lines, which stand for experimental group and control group separately. As we can see from the graph below, questionnaires have been carried out after pre-test and post-test. The means of two groups (the experimental group and the control group) reflect how students value listening comprehension training before and after the treatment. The experimental group shows a higher score 3.83 (nearly 4) which indicates participants believe that the majority of statement usually true for them, and this mean is a little bit higher than the control group (Mean=3.51) at the beginning of the data collection. However, compared with the control group line, the experimental group line shows a significant increase when it comes to the post-questionnaire. Based on this result, when testing the effects of listening comprehension training on perceived-value of listening comprehension training to see that there is a difference between pre-test and post-test perceived value scores.

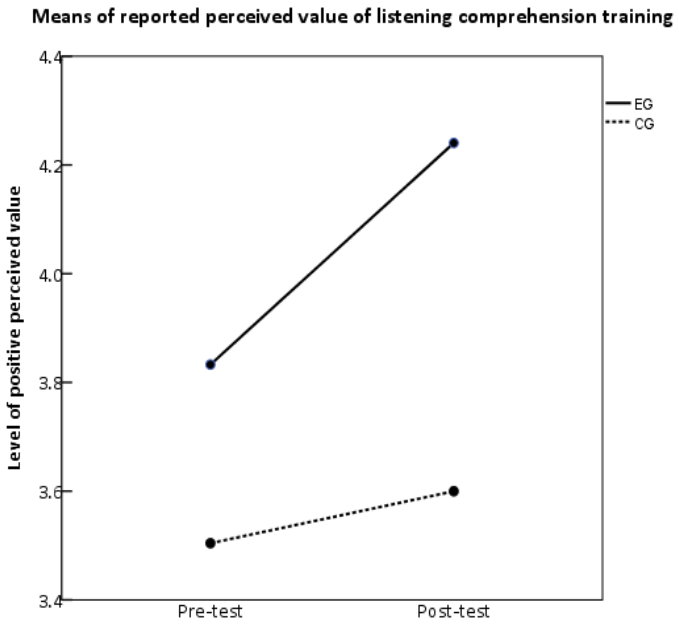

Figure 5- 1 Means of the reported perceived value of listening comprehension training

5.2.2 The paired t-test on perceived value of listening comprehension training

Based on the descriptive statistics, in order to find out whether listening comprehension training will affect the perceived value of listening comprehension training in both groups, null hypotheses one and two (H01, H02) are tested using the Paired Sample T-Test within the SPSS. Table 7-4 presents a comparison between pre-and post-perceived value question items in the experimental group.

a) The effect of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction in the perceived value of listening comprehension training in the experimental group

H01: Listening comprehension training does not make a difference in the perceived value of listening comprehension training on pre- and post-questionnaire results.

H02: Listening comprehension training does make a difference in the perceived value of listening comprehension training on pre- and post- questionnaire results.

Table 5- 2 T-test results of the perceived value of integrated listening comprehension training in the experimental group

	Mean	N	SD	Sig. (2-tailed)
EG pre-perceived value	3.83	74	.693	.000
EG post-perceived value	4.24	74	.475	

In Table 5-2, mean scores (M) in the perceived value of listening comprehension training are compared, which increased from 3.83 to 4.24. The difference of means indicates that, more students achieve a higher value of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction. In addition, as the *P=.000,* which is smaller than *.05,* which rejected the H01 and H02 is retained. Accordingly, the results of T-test show that there is a significant difference between pre- and post-perceived value. In other words, the integrated listening comprehension training does make a difference on the students in the experimental group. Experimental

groups were positively affected by the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction, which has increased their perceived value of listening comprehension training after the treatment.

b) The effect of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction on the perceived value of listening comprehension training in control group

H01: Listening comprehension training does not make a difference on the perceived value of listening comprehension training on pre- and post-questionnaire results.

H02: Listening comprehension training does make a difference on the perceived value of listening comprehension training on pre- and post-questionnaire results.

Table 5- 3 T-test results of the perceived value of conventional listening comprehension training in the control group

	Mean	N	SD	Sig. (2-tailed)
CG pre-perceived value	3.51	72	.633	.334
CG post-perceived value	3.60	72	.635	

In Table 5-3, the mean scores in pre- and post-questionnaire show a quite similar result (3.51and 3.60 respectively), which indicate perceived value of listening at 3.53. Conventional listening comprehension training on control group students stay in the middle level. The *P* value is .334 that is bigger than the .05. Therefore, no evidence to reject H02 and H01 is retained. Hence, the sample means of pre- and post-questionnaire- perceived value of listening comprehension training unlikely shows any difference. In other words, conventional listening comprehension training does not significantly change the perspectives of students in terms of how they value the listening comprehension training.

In summary, based on the results of paired t-tests in both groups, it can be summarized that the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction does

promote the perceived value of listening comprehension training. While conventional listening comprehension training less likely affects the choice of the perceived value in control group students. The reasons for these findings will be revealed by the students' interviews in chapter eight (see 6.5 &6.6) and more discussion in chapter seven (see 7.4).

5.3 Use of listening strategies

5.3.1 The descriptive statistics

Listening strategy use was designed as a section B with 30 items in the questionnaire (see appendix 4). These items aimed to explore what listening strategies the participants like to use in order to comprehend listening materials. It is the same as section A, the score range is from 1(never or almost never true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me). It can be seen from the table that minimum scores of both groups are under 2 (1.83 and 1.23 respectively) and maximum scores are around 4 (4.23 and 4.03 respectively). This range reflects that the students may not apply listening strategies very often. Comparing with this, there is a difference, in which the lowest score has increased to 2.07 and the maximum score is up to 4.6 in the experimental group. This similar increase can also be found in the control group (the lowest score=1.97, the highest score= 4.3).

Table 5- 4 Summary of listening strategy use descriptive statistics of two groups

	Pre-questionnaire				Post-questionnaire			
	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Experimental group	1.83	4.23	3.00	0.583	2.07	4.60	3.51	0.519
Control group	1.23	4.03	2.79	0.551	1.97	4.30	3.05	0.515

Besides the findings of the minimum and the maximum scores of both groups, the mean of each group has also shown an increased trend. From the graph below, the line of the experimental group shows a sharp increase compared with a steady increase in the control group. Generally speaking, the mean scores at post-questionnaire are higher than the pre-questionnaire. In terms of the experimental

group, the increase between pre-test and post-test mean scores is .51, which is bigger than the control group (. 26). This may suggest that the experimental group obtain a greater achievement than the control group. In order to measure these differences in listening strategies used before and after the treatment, t-tests have been carried out.

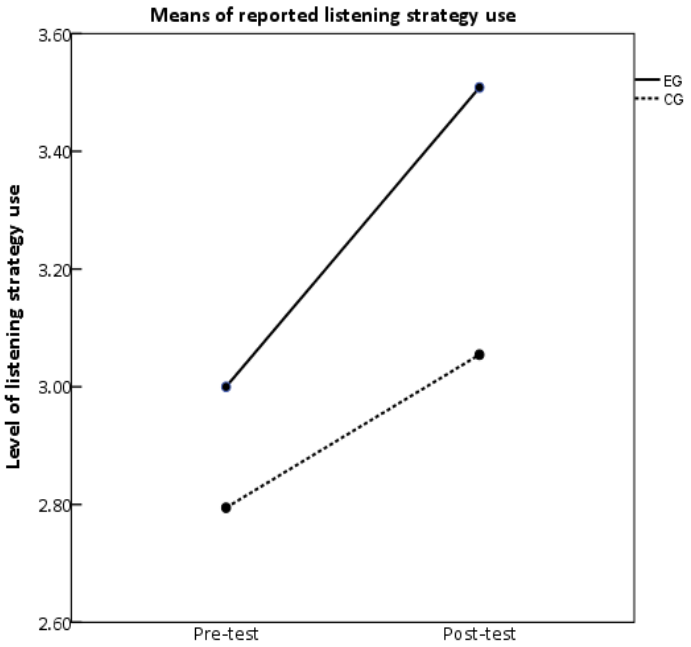

Figure 5- 2 Means of reported listening strategy use

5.3.2 The paired t-test on listening strategy use

As previously mentioned in the methodology chapters, the experimental group received the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction, which is different from the control group who received conventional listening comprehension training. Therefore, according to the description of listening strategy use, it is necessary to explore the effect of these two listening training approaches on the use of listening strategies in each group. Hence, there is a comparison between pre-and post-questionnaire in terms of listening strategy use for both groups separately.

For the purpose of test, the differences between the pre-value and post value of listening comprehension training from the questionnaire, null hypotheses one and two (H01, H02) are tested using the Paired Sample T-Test within the SPSS. Table

5-5 presents a comparison between pre- and post-questionnaire (listening strategy use items) in the experimental group.

a) Treatment effect on listening strategy use in the experimental group

H01: Listening comprehension training (situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction) does not make a difference in listening strategy use on pre- and post- questionnaire results.

H02: Listening comprehension training (situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction) does make a difference in listening strategy use on pre- and post- questionnaire results.

Table 5- 5 T-test results of listening strategy use in the experimental group

	Mean	N	SD	Sig. (2-tailed)
EG pre-listening strategy use	3.00	74	.587	.000
EG post-listening strategy use	3.51	74	.522	

In Table 5-5, mean scores (M) in listening strategy use of listening comprehension training are compared, which have shown an increase from 3.00 to 3.51. The difference of means shows that the students more often use listening strategies in the post- questionnaire. In addition, as the *P=.000,* which is smaller than *.05,* which rejected the H01 and H02 is retained. Accordingly, the results of T-test show that there is a significant difference between listening strategy use between pre- and post-questionnaire. In other words, the situated-demonstration-listening strategy instruction does make a positive difference on the students in the experimental group.

b) The effect of conventional listening comprehension training on listening strategy use in the control group

H01: Listening comprehension training (conventional listening training) does not make a difference in listening strategy use on pre- and post- questionnaire results.

H02: Listening comprehension training (conventional listening training) does make a difference in listening strategy use on pre- and post- questionnaire results.

Table 5- 6 T-test results of listening strategy use in the control group

	Mean	N	SD	Sig. (2-tailed)
CG pre- listening strategy use	2.79	72	.552	.005
CG post-listening strategy use	3.05	72	.518	

Table 5-6 compares the mean scores between the listening strategy use in pre- and post-questionnaire. The mean of post questionnaire (listening strategy use items) is higher than the pre-questionnaire, which is 3.05 and 2.79 respectively. As the *P* value is .005 that is smaller than .05, the H01 is rejected. In other words, listening comprehension training also help for students' listening strategy use. This does make a difference in listening strategy use on pre- and post- questionnaire results.

In summary, both the innovative and conventional listening comprehension training contribute to higher frequent listening strategy use. This finding indicates that the listening comprehension training increase the student's awareness of more listening strategies or listening methods application while listening. These findings show a statistically significant increase before and after the treatment in listening strategy use. However, it is less likely to show how deeply the different instruction approaches of listening comprehension training does in fact affect students' understanding of listening strategies, the reasons behind their strategy choice, as well as the strategy used in the cognitive listening process. Therefore, the analysis of verbal reports that may reflect students' listening process will be carried out and presented in the next chapter (see 6.4). And more detailed information that reflects students' thought of listening strategy use will displayed in chapter six.

5.4 Self-efficacy development

5.4.1 The descriptive statistics

Besides the listening comprehension development and listening strategy use, self-efficacy development is being explored. Self-efficacy is about a person's belief in terms of personal capability to perform at a desired or necessary level (Bandura,1977; Schunk, 2003). Cho *et al* (2015) mentioned that 'self-efficacy predicts engagements, effort expenditure, and persistence, especially when confronted with difficulties'. In other words, the self-efficacy level may influence the students' listening comprehension performance, especially when they face difficulties. As previously mentioned in chapter 2, listening strategy instruction may promote the students' self-efficacy development. It could be intriguing to find out to what extent listening strategy instruction influence on the students' learning self-efficacy development.

The source of self-efficacy information was designed as section C in the questionnaire. It includes 20 items that measure learners' belief, and their confidence of English listening comprehension. Table 5-5 presents descriptive statistics of the self-efficacy results at pre- and post-questionnaire.

Table 5- 7 Summary of self-efficacy descriptive statistics of two groups

	Pre-questionnaire				Post-questionnaire			
	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Experimental group	2.00	4.05	3.11	0.394	2.30	4.00	3.23	0.385
Control group	1.90	3.85	3.05	0.413	1.90	4.9	3.11	0.461

From this descriptive data, it can be seen that the means of self-efficacy at post-questionnaire is slightly higher than the previous questionnaire. When compared with the two groups, the means suggest that the self-efficacy of the experimental group increased more than the control group. For the experimental group, the difference between pre- and post-questionnaire mean scores is .12, while this difference in the control group is .06. This trend has been displayed in the graph below. It can be seen that the means of the pre-questionnaire is slightly higher

than the control group, and there is a steep increase in the experimental group after the treatment. This different level of increased learning self-efficacy should be noted, as it may indicate the relationship between listening comprehension training and self-efficacy development.

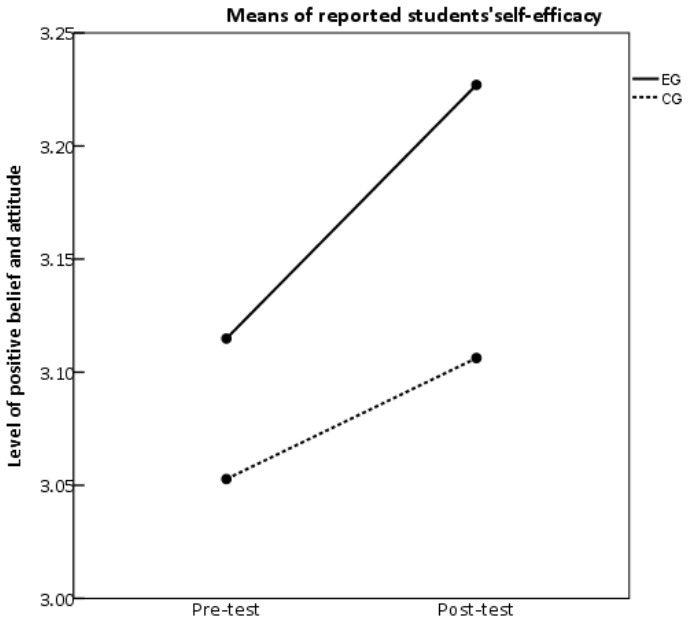

Figure 5- 3 Means of reported self-efficacy

In summary, this section presented the general descriptive data of minimum, maximum and means in terms of the perceived value of listening comprehension training, listening strategy use, as well as self-efficacy belief. The comparisons with the mean scores in the pre- and post- questionnaire of both groups show more equivalent gains. Although there are some differences in terms of mean comparison between pre- and post-questionnaire, these differences may not be identified as significant differences. Therefore, in order to measure whether these differences are significant or not, paired t-test need to be conducted and will be reported in the next few sections.

5.4.2 The paired t-test on self-efficacy development

In order to explore whether the listening comprehension training could affect the learners' self-efficacy, null hypotheses one and two (H01, H02) are tested using the Paired Sample T-Test within the SPSS in both groups separately. Table 5-8

presents a comparison between pre- and post- questionnaire (section on self-efficacy) in the experimental group.

a) Treatment effects in the experimental group

H01: Listening comprehension training does not make a difference in the students' self-efficacy.

H02: Listening comprehension training does make a difference in the students' self-efficacy.

Table 5- 8 T-test results of students' self-efficacy in the experimental group

	Mean	N	SD	Sig. (2-tailed)
EG pre-self-efficacy	3.11	74	.394	.016
EG post- self-efficacy	3.23	74	.385	

In Table 5-8, mean scores (M) in students' self-efficacy are compared, a positive increase between pre- and post- self-efficacy, which is from 3.11 to 3.23. In addition, as the *P=.000,* which is smaller than *.05,* which rejected the H1 and H2 is retained. Accordingly, the results of T-test show that there is a significant difference between pre- and post- self-efficacy. In other words, the integrated listening comprehension training does make a positive difference on the students in the experimental group.

b) Conventional listening comprehension training effect in the control group

H01: Listening comprehension training does not make a difference in the students' self-efficacy.

H02: Listening comprehension training does make a difference in the students' self-efficacy.

Table 5- 9 T-test results of students' self-efficacy in the control group

	Mean	N	SD	Sig. (2-tailed)
CG pre-self-efficacy	3.05	72	.413	.471
CG post-self-efficacy	3.11	72	.461	

In Table 5-9, the mean scores in pre- and post- questionnaire show a quite similar result (3.05 and 3.11 respectively), which shows the level of self-efficacy on control group students are remaining in the middle level. The *P* value is .471 that is bigger than the .05. Therefore, no evidence to reject H01 and H02 is retained. Hence, the listening comprehension training does not significantly make a difference in the students' self-efficacy. In other words, conventional listening comprehension training does not significantly change the self-efficacy of students.

In summary, the listening comprehension training does make a positive change on student's learning attitude and self-efficacy development in the experimental group. However, students in the control group which received conventional listening comprehension training does not show a significant difference in terms of self-efficacy. In other words, the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction contributes to self-efficacy development.

5.5 The most frequently used listening strategies

Based on the previous findings of listening strategy use, this section shows the most frequently used listening strategies which are determined by the average means from the top score to the bottom. Thirty listening strategy items in the questionnaire were grouped into three categories, which included metacognitive strategy (item 3, 4, 5, 6,12,20,22,24), cognitive strategy (item1,2,7,8,9,10,11,13,14,15,16, 17, 19, 21,23,25,27) and social-affective strategy (item 18,28,29,30). The students gave scores for each item, from one (never or almost true of me) to five (always or almost always true of me) to show what strategies the students apply in the listening tasks. Compared with the means between each item of listening strategies in pre- and post- questionnaires

and listening strategy use of questionnaire, the most frequently used listening strategies in the experimental group are listed inTable 5-10.

Table 5- 10 The most frequently used listening strategies in the experimental group

Listening strategies		Means of pre-listening strategy use	Means of post-listening strategy use
Metacognitive strategies	Item 3. I try to give full attention to the listening task and ignore irrelevant distracters.	4.2	4.3
	Item 24. If I do not understand something when listening, I lose my concentration immediately but try to recover it right away.	3.8	4.1
Cognitive strategies	Item 22. When listening, I try to understand the meaning of key words.	3.9	4.2
	Item 23. If I do not understand something when listening, I keep on listening for clarification later on.	3.9	4.0
	Item 26. While I am listening to a text, consciously, keep in mind for the information I need to listen for.	3.7	4.0

In Table 5-10, it can be seen that the items 3,22,23,24,26 with the highest means among thirty items of strategy use in both pre- and post- questionnaires. These five items reflect that the listening strategies are mainly regarding focus of attention, understanding the key words, repeating and asking for clarification. Compared with the mean scores between pre- and post- questionnaire, although the most frequently used listening strategies are the same on both questionnaires, the mean scores of each item on post-questionnaire (listening strategy use) are higher than the pre-questionnaire. This indicates that the strategy instruction

contributes to increasing the students applied strategies more frequently than before.

Likewise, Table 5-11 presents the most frequently used listening strategy between pre- and post-questionnaire (listening strategy use) in the control group, which shows a slight difference.

Table 5- 11 The most frequently used listening strategies in the control group

	Listening strategies	Means of pre-listening strategy use	Means of post-listening strategy use
Metacognitive strategies	Item 3. I try to give full attention to the listening task and ignore irrelevant distracters.	4.1	3.9
	Item 24. If I do not understand something when listening, I lose my concentration immediately but try to recover it right away.	3.6	3.6
Cognitive strategies	Item 22. When listening, I try to understand the meaning of key words.	3.5	3.6
	Item 23. If I do not understand something when listening, I keep on listening for clarification later on.		3.6
	Item 26. While I am listening to a text, consciously, keep in mind for the information I need to listen for.	3.6	
	Item 12. I note down key words and concepts while listening.		3.6
	Item 7. While listening, I try to use my previous knowledge to comprehend what I hear.	3.5	

As seen from Table 5-11, Items 3, 23, 24 are selected as the most frequently used listening strategies in both questionnaires. The items 7 and 26 in pre-questionnaire are replaced by item 23 and 12 as the most frequently used listening strategies in the post-questionnaire. In the pre-questionnaire, which regards repeating, noting down key words, and paying attention. Compared with the mean scores between two questionnaires, it can be found that the students keep their focus on listening tasks while listening most of the time (item 3 with the highest mean 4.1/3.9). As score 3 stands for somewhat true of me and score 4 means usually true of me, the students give the scores around 3.5 for the rest of strategies, which indicates students apply these strategies from time to time. Among these items, students keep applying the strategy of attention selection and the clues of key words to comprehend listening materials after the listening comprehension training. However, the control group students would prefer to depend on the previous knowledge (item 35) and listen more times (item 26) to comprehend at the beginning, while students tend to apply strategy of ask for clarification (item 23), and their note-taking (item 12) skills have been developed after the conventional training.

In summary, by comparing the means of listening strategy items, there are five most frequently used strategies that have been found in both groups. The five strategies with increasing means in the post-questionnaire, which indicate the same strategies are being more frequently used while listening after the treatment by the experimental group students. The control group students showed a slight difference in terms of the strategy use from both pre- and post-questionnaire, however the scores of items are around 3.5 which indicate the control group students applied these strategies sometimes but still more often than other strategies.

5.6 Summary

This chapter presented the findings in the effects of different teaching approaches (situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction and conventional listening comprehension training) on listening comprehension perceived-value of listening

comprehension training, listening strategy use and self-efficacy development in two groups respectively. The results showed that the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction contributed to increasing students perceived value of listening comprehension training, promoting more frequently strategy use and self-efficacy development. While the conventional listening comprehension training encouraged more listening strategy use, but less helpful to change students perceived-value of listening comprehension training nor develop their self-efficacy of listening comprehension. Besides, the most frequently used listening strategies were presented for both groups. These strategies were mainly in regards to metacognitive strategies (e.g. select attention), cognitive strategies (e.g. take notes, ask for clarification). These quantitative results will be provided with more detailed and insightful explanations from the findings of verbal reports and interviews in chapter six**.**

Chapter 6 The findings of verbal reports and students' interviews

6.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the findings of students' verbal report and interview, which may help understand the findings of other data sets (e.g. questionnaire) in the study. It starts with an overview of the listening strategy use in both groups that are reflected from the verbal report in section 6.2. There are more detailed findings that can be found, such as the listening processing of students with different listening proficiency levels in section 6.3. Section 6.4 explains the reasons for increased perceived-value of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction has been located in the experimental group' students' interview. Likewise, section 6.5 explains the factors that may influence perceived-value of listening comprehension training in the control group, which is corresponding to the quantitative results of chapter seven. Section 6.6 has discussed the outcome of listening comprehension training, which includes the development of self-efficacy and a promoted motivation of listening comprehension practice. The last section is a summary of the findings of verbal reports and students' interviews (6.7).

6.2 The findings from the verbal report in the control group and the experimental Group

As mentioned in chapter three, the researcher carried out the same coding procedure on pre- and post-verbal reports for both groups. Two tables will be presented to provide a general view of strategy reported from the verbal reports in two groups respectively (see Table 6-1, Table 6-2). Table 6-1 is generating and showing the listening strategy from the perspectives of memory, analysis of expressions, intelligent guessing and identification of purpose, the total amount used and percentages of frequency.

a) An overview of listening strategy use in the control group

As seen from Table 6-1, *memory strategy* takes up a larger proportion in both pre- and post-verbal reports, which are 64 and 44.3 respectively, which show the students rely more on their memory to recall the content of listening materials. Within this category, it is intriguing to find that the proportion of students with decrease of memory retention, falls from 44.5% to 10 %, while the frequency of written down original sentences has increased from 19.5% to 34.3% in the post-verbal report. It may reflect that students are able to recall more complete information.

As for the strategy of analysis of expressions, the overall frequency has increased dramatically from 16% in pre-verbal reports to 51% in post-verbal reports. More specifically, the strategies of *make a summary* and *note taking/ highlighting important information* have been applied more frequently in the post-test, which are 30.2% and 20.8% separately. In terms of the use of strategy in '*intelligent guessing'* and *identification of purpose,* which show difference. In the pre-verbal reports, the students applied and reported more in how they made full use of clues (intelligent guessing) and identifying the questions of listening tasks, which is 9% and 11% respectively.

However, the use of these strategies has been less carried out (e.g. intelligent guessing) or non-applied (e.g. identification of purpose) in the post-tests. Overall, although there are some differences (e.g. the percentages of frequency) that are reflected from verbal reports in terms of listening strategy use, the classifications of listening strategies have shown a similar result, which mainly correspond to 1) the use of memory to recall listening materials and comprehend, 2) a comprehensive understanding of listening materials and expressions, as well as 3) the use of clues as much as possible to judge and guess answers intelligently.

Table 6- 1 A general view of listening strategies reported from verbal reports in the control group

Listening Strategies		Pre-verbal reports			Post-verbal reports		
		Total amt. Used.	FREQ (%)	Total (%)	Total amt. Used	FREQ (%)	Total (%)
Memory	Remember the key words	89	44.5%	64%	10	10%	44.3 %
	Remember the original sentences	39	19.5%		33	34.3%	
Analysis of expressions	Make a summary	17	8.5%	16%	29	30.2%	51%
	Take notes / highlight important information	8	4%		20	20.8%	
	Preview questions	7	3.5%		Na	0	
Intelligent guessing	Non-linguistics knowledge	17	8.5%	9%	4	4.1%	4.1%
	Judge the options based on knowledge of context, personal experience and text structure	1	0.5%		Na	0	
Identification of purpose	Identification of listening comprehension questions	22	11%	11%	Na	0	0

b) An overview of listening strategy use in the experimental group

Likewise, there is an overall of listening strategies that are applied and reported from verbal reports in the experimental group. As it can be seen from Table 6-2, the listening strategies that applied and showed from the verbal reports, mainly include the *memory, analysis of expressions* and *intelligent guessing*. From the perspective of frequency, it seems to show a quite similar proportion of these main strategies in both pre- and post-verbal reports, for example, 29 percent of *memory* strategies have been applied in the pre-verbal report, and 27.8% in post-verbal report. In addition, the most frequently used listening strategies *analysis of*

expressions share a similar percentage. This is shown as 63.6 % and 68.6 % respectively. *Intelligent guessing* takes up 7.4 percent, which reduces to half in post-verbal reports.

Although, the general frequency has shown more similar results, while the total amount of used strategies has increased dramatically when compared with the same strategy category between pre- and post- verbal reports. For example, the strategy of *make a summary* was applied and reported 46 times, this number has increased to 99. Another significant increase is the number of notes taking/highlight information, which is from 53 times to 151. This change may indicate that the note taking or highlight information is indicated to be one of essential listening strategies for students.

Table 6- 2 A general view of listening strategies reported from verbal reports in experimental group

Listening Strategies		Pre-verbal reports			Post-verbal reports		
		Total amt. Used.	FREQ (%)	Total (%)	Total amt. Used.	FREQ (%)	Total (%)
Memory	Remember the original sentence	45	29%	29%	52	14.3%	27.8%
	Remember the key words to answer questions	Na	0		49	13.5%	
Analysis of expressions	Make a summary	46	29.6%	63.6%	99	27.1%	68.6%
	Take notes / highlight important information	53	34%		151	41.5%	
Intelligent guessing	Non-linguistics knowledge	11	7.4%	7.4%	13	3.6%	3.6%

6.3 The strategy used at different English proficiency levels

As mentioned in chapter four, the verbal reports aim to reflect the process of listening processing from participants. In this section, both groups of students' verbal report will be presented below.

- The findings of Higher listening proficiency students in strategy use - Control group

In the pre-verbal reports, the content that was collected from students with good listening comprehension performance in the control group has shown that the they were able to understand parts of information from the listening materials and note down, this included location words (e.g. *Birmingham*), question-related key words (e.g. *menu, book the table*), or an action word/phrase plus a time word, like *set off in the afternoon.* These words and information may indicate that the students have some listening comprehension experience, as they seem to have a habit of writing down key information of the listening materials, such as time, place or activities, which help them to gain a general understanding of context and comprehend the whole listening dialogues.

Besides, these students also present a methodology that they have used non-linguistics clues, for example, the gender of speakers, to comprehend the information and judge the options. At the same time, the good listeners have tried to catch the whole information by writing the original sentences as much as they can in the verbal reports, for example, *stay in HongKong 2 days and stay in Singapore 10 days,* however this had only occurred twice from the top students' pre-verbal reports.

While comparing the pre-verbal reports, the same students have more frequently written down more complete sentences such as '*Doctor couldn't have done so much without you; I have to go there without breakfast, breakfast still hasn't come'.* On the other hand, the students have tried more often to summary or paraphrase the dialogues, for example, *'the manager asked the clerk about the plan to open*

the store'. In terms of the strategy of catching and note-taking of listening materials, the students have shown similar results, which are some segmental words or phrases. Some of these words are related to the answers while others are just listed without any further explanations, like *give bathe, my life, vacation, everywhere.*

Overall, in terms of their listening strategy application and awareness, the conventional listening comprehension training appears to have had little influence on the better performing students in the control group, as the students did not show great input into the listening methodologies or skills to comprehend the listening materials. While the long paraphrases or summaries were reported in verbal reports which would have indicated that the students may develop a better ability to catch more complicated information, try to remain it in the mind for a longer time and comprehend it.

- The findings of higher-level students in strategy use, Experimental Group

The findings of Higher listening proficiency students-Experimental Group

As the results showed from the pre-verbal reports, advanced students would like to better catch and write down some words or sentences, which are from listening materials, which take a large percentage of the whole reports. For example, *homework, stay at home, books, immediately, enjoy eating something, I want all these books there, I can't stand the noisy music*. From these reports, it can be seen that the students have awareness to listen and understand information as much as possible, they mainly focused on the key words note taking. However, it may not have reflected there being any specific listening methods or reasons to explain how to get the answer. On the other hand, *paraphrase* or *make a summary* of the listening materials is also applied, but the summary is more comparable to a short paraphrase, *e.g. it was not interesting, some of the players were bad,* it does not show any reasons or relation to the answers.

However, from the same students' post-verbal reports, *make a summary* is continually used as one of the common listening strategies to comprehend the meaning of the dialogues, more complete information has been reflected from the verbal reports, *e.g. the women said she didn't feel the job she used to do was her favorite; the women said she was watching weather reports.* Moreover, students not only remember the original meaning of dialogues but also comprehend and summarize it in Chinese. For example, one student made a summary in Chinese, e.g. *ta qing xing zi ji zuo le zhe ge jue ding,* it means she feels lucky to make this decision in Chinese. It reflected the speaker is happy explained the reason to why she is happy, therefore the listener chose an answer from the A to D which expresses a similar idea. This process applied the strategy of memory, summarize and prior language knowledge, which indicates students have developed more comprehensive skills to apply listening strategies.

Besides, there are other strategies that had been applied by these students, it included 1) the strategy of non-linguistics clue, *the intonation of women's speaking helps me comprehend the listening materials;* 2) the strategy of underlining key words, *I underline the question word and identify the key words, which help me more focus and pay attention to the information after the words, e.g. but, now;* 3) the memory strategy which involved the remembering the original the sentences has been also shown from the verbal reports, e.g. *I know you work in a pet hospital; they can't get ticket everywhere.*

To summarize, compared with the pre-verbal reports of these advanced listeners in the control group, the post-verbal reports from the experimental group are more systematic, detailed, and the students are able to explain the reasons or strategies that help to get answers. Moreover, the students in the experimental group have developed a more comprehensive ability to generalize and comprehend the content of listening materials. The content of verbal reports has been expanded from note-taking in the pre-verbal reports to a detailed description of listening methods or strategies with a comprehensive understanding of the materials. From this point of view, these advanced students have developed a more comprehensive ability of listening strategy use for comprehending listening

materials. Advanced listeners showed refined listening comprehension skills and strategy use after the situated-demonstration of listening comprehension training, they are able to combine and apply the different listening strategies in one listening task, which is different from the control group students. Comparing the findings of strategy use from the post-verbal reports between two groups, the conventional training approach is helpful for the listeners' memory training, while the situated-demonstration strategy instruction contributes to improving advanced listeners' comprehensive strategy use ability.

- The findings of middle- level students in strategy use-control Group

  The content in both pre- and post-verbal reports are mainly regarding the words through note-taking, which the students can remember and believe that these words are the key words in the listening materials. For example, *go camping-this week, 10:17, you 11:15; when, tomorrow afternoon, set off; two days + Hong Kong Ten days.* As it can be seen, these notes are combining the words with symbols this in turn makes it clearer and easier to understand, with more numbers having been noted down. This finding may show that the students in the middle level are good at taking notes intelligently.

  However, from the perspective of the influence that listening comprehension training on listening processing and listening strategy use in the control group, students were less affected by conventional training. It seems that the students have little idea of listening strategy use, their verbal reports reflect that they write down what they have heard without specific purpose, most content of verbal reports were presented as simple words *(e.g. class, very well, storm, her).* Therefore, conventional listening comprehension training is less helpful to establish the concept of applying listening comprehension strategy that may organize their listening processing and facilitate listening comprehension.

- The findings of middle- level students in strategy use -Experimental Group

In the experimental group, the students in the pre-verbal report prefer to make a short summary of a listening material piece, for example, *the girl said she would take the train at 10:17; the plane will stop for a moment in HongKong.* However, the strategy of make a summary has been strengthened and the student wrote more a detailed description and analysis when they made summaries in the post-verbal report, such as *I've an important meeting and I've to get my breakfast to there, this indicates the women is disappointed and not satisfied with the hotel service; in the dialogue, the women said she worded on a farm as a dentist of a hospital, this means she works in the farm as a dentist.*

Besides, comparing with the pre-verbal report, there are various listening strategies reflected in the post-verbal reports. These included 1) the strategy of the original sentence memory, especially for longer sentences, *e.g. how about driving to the countryside today, this is the answer to the question;* 2) a combination of in strategy of original sentences recollection from memory and non-linguistic guessing, such as *according to the intonation and attitude of the male speaker, I guess he is the boss of the store, especially when he said to people to come, it indicates he was asking staff to do this job.*

On the other hand, the pre-verbal reports provide a description of the listening comprehension process. One of the students (who achieved a score of 50 % in pre-test then made progress to the middle level of 75%) mentioned that *I'm not sure what to write although I have an idea what I supposed to report. When I concentrate on the listening, I can get some information but forget immediately after listening. When I made the choice from option A to D, I just choose one, I guess it should be right without any reasons.* However, when it came to her post-verbal report, there are two changes: 1) she takes some short notes, *e.g. two weeks, manager apologized to woman, helpful,* which she believes the words contribute to reminding of information or comprehending the dialogues; 2) she tried to summarize the information that was heard, *e.g. do something she likes.*

Although these are just some very short words or summaries, it should be mentioned and encouraged in the listening comprehension training, as little progress of listeners could contribute to a big improvement in the end.

From these students, it can be seen that after a period of listening comprehension training, their awareness of listening comprehension skills and listening comprehension methods and strategies have been enhanced, as they have the awareness to apply it while listening and reflected upon in within verbal reports. To summarize, the pre- and post-verbal reports of middle-level students in the control group were less likely to reflect upon the impact of listening comprehension training on them because the content of the pre- and post-verbal reports are similar in respect to words being noted down with no further explanation. In the experimental group, besides the improved listening comprehension performance, the verbal reports of middle-level students have reflected a development awareness of listening strategy use and comprehension, which are of importance in the listening comprehension practice.

- The findings of lower listening proficiency students - Control group & Experimental group

The most common feature of lower-level students' pre-verbal reports is that they are able to take simple notes and write down some words or phrases, *e.g. hotel, notebook, ice cream, key, car, notebook,* which they believed help to follow the dialogues better or catch needed important information. This feature has continually been shown within post-verbal reports of students within the control group.

However, the students in the experimental group have enhanced their note-taking skill and memory, as more completed sentences could be found from their post-verbal reports. For example, *I have watched weather report; I go there without my breakfast.* Therefore, they are more likely to catch more information compared with their pre-verbal reports which help them to comprehend listening materials.

Compared with their previous listening comprehension skills and strategies applied shown on pre-verbal reports, this change is a good achievement for them to notice and develop in the future.

To summarise here, the less-skilled control group's students did not show much in regards to their listening processing, or they may find it is hard to explain the processing. While regarding the experimental group students, although the less advanced listeners made progress with their listening comprehension performance, their listening comprehension processing mostly depended on their memory to comprehend the listening materials. Besides, the other listening strategies or skills were shown less in this process. The training of listening comprehension is a long-term process, this result provided a good example that listening comprehension training may not only be in regards to students' higher scores achievement, it is also listening comprehension skills development. It may take a longer amount of time for less-skilled students to develop listening comprehension skills and complete listening processing.

6.4 The factors that increase the perceived value of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction in the experimental group

a) The situated-demonstration of strategy instruction

When exploring the factors that influence students' perceived value of listening comprehension training, all the interviewees with different listening proficiency levels in the experimental group expressed the innovative treatment - the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction contributes to a higher perceived value of listening comprehension training. The most common reason is that the demonstration of listening strategy instruction is straightforward that brings understanding and is easily applied. For example, EG3-03H said,

'I think I get a clear and good understanding about the listening strategy instruction which is important for me, as the teacher in the class she always

demonstrates and explains how and when to use listening strategies, and when I am listening to the materials on my own, I clearly know that I applied it while comprehending meaning'.

EG3-21L also expressed a similar set of feedback, she said:

'I think the instruction in the class is very clear and useful, I rarely practiced English listening comprehension before… The idea of the listening strategy is quite new for me, but the teacher in the class demonstrates how to use listening strategies step by step… how she (the teacher) solved the problems of listening comprehension…how she predicted questions and got clues which left me a deep impression…I like this teaching method a lot!'

b) Listening strategy related listening comprehension practice

Apart from a clear strategy of instruction, all the students within the experimental expressed that they more or less applied listening strategies while listening, they expressed watching the teacher's demonstration first then apply the strategies in the specific listening tasks with learned strategies, which helps them get a better understanding of listening strategies. The follow-up practice and work with peers after each strategy instruction enabled students to practice and enhance the ability of listening strategy use. EG3-24P, for instance, reported:

'Sometimes when the teacher demonstrated listening strategies, it is exactly the same as my understandings about how to use that strategy…I am very eager to apply it in the following listening comprehension exercise to experience how it works…'

While the students who have lower listening proficiency also get benefits from such teaching approach, as EG3-21L mentioned that 'it's really helpful, I don't

know how to get answers while listening, I was a bit worried…don't know whether I can apply it…until I tried the exercise…and it's working!!'

Working with peers provides more chances for them to interact and learn from others, such as, how to comprehend listening materials. As a lower proficiency student, EG3-21L mentioned *'strategies help me a lot, but I more often get benefits from communicating with peers and exchanging ideas and learn from each other'.* She also explained the reason that

> *'keep repeating and listen to the listening materials helps to clarify the information, but when I exchange the answer with my classmates, it is not only the answers to the questions but also the methods how to get it…'*

At the same time, learners are encouraged by peers when discussing and working out the answers together, for example,

'When doing dictation, sometimes it's easier to miss some words. However, if I exchange my answers with my classmates or sometimes help others to get the answers, we both feel good to help each other' (EG3-03H).

c) An increasing interest of listening strategy use

Besides, an increasing interest of listening strategy use also add the perceived value of strategy instruction, as the students EG1-04L mentioned:

'I knew listening strategy when I was in high school, but I don't think it's useful until I see the teacher's demonstration which increase my interests, and I tried afterwards, I cannot deny that it indeed helps me become more concentrated on the tasks and think differently about listening comprehension training.

Student EG1-4H reported she is more willing to apply listening strategies to practice listening because of the direct strategy instruction, *'…like the strategy of repeating is very helpful and easy to carry out, the more I listen, the more information I get. I get a sense of achievement during this training process'*.

More students (e.g. EG1-17P, Eg3-21L, EG3-03H) are more likely to use the strategy of repeating to facilitate the other strategies (e.g. note-taking, use clues) and comprehend listening materials. For example, repetition of listening to get as much as information as possible and take notes, as EG3-03H mentioned

'I listen to the same materials more than once, then I take notes for the words in terms of place, time and activities from the listening materials, which I think is helpful to answer the questions… I write down some sentences while listening or use clues, and put all the information together to comprehend the meaning'.

The other student EG2-21P also highlighted that they made a guess based on different clues, such as the knowledge of grammar or linguistics, key question words or something indicating the theme of the dialogues. As the student mentioned, '*I would like to learn the listed new words first before listening, I may probably link it to some potential topics and make a guess. I will listen to the same materials again to check my guessing and understanding'*.

The higher frequently used repeating strategy by the teacher can also be found from the field notes. It reported that the teacher combined the strategy of repeating with other strategies (use clues, prior knowledge) to help students facilitate listening comprehension in the procedure of listening comprehension training. For example, *'the teacher played the same audio twice then checked the students' understanding, she encouraged students to use the knowledge of formulas and patterns to check and write down more completed sentences.*

'After listening, the teacher asked students to repeat and translate the content they heard. It is a bit difficult for students to get the information, so she encouraged students to guess the general meaning of the sentence by analyzing some clues of the task, like the meaning of sentences related to the answers. For example, 'be engaged' in one conversation means busy with, so the teacher analyzed this sentence meaning the telephone is always busy, the answer that indicates Sue cannot get through the telephone should be chosen'.

d) summary

To summarise, the experimental group's students increased the perceived value of listening comprehension because of the straightforward listening strategy instruction and the instant strategy practice. It can be concluded that the innovative strategy instruction enhanced their understanding of listening strategies and brought students different learning experience of listening comprehension training. These findings could be the reasons why the experimental group's students have shown a statistically increased perceived-value of listening comprehension training after the treatment. Further discussion of this will be presented in chapter seven.

6.5 The perspectives of the control group's students in the perceived-value of listening comprehension training

In contrast, only two students in the control group briefly indicated that they are satisfied with listening comprehension training, like CG2-30P *'it's okay, should be helpful'*, the other six participants in this group expressed negative attitude to listening comprehension training. Most of them reported that they are not happy with their listening abilities and even lower their expectations on improvement. For example, CG3-17P, explained that she had a higher expectation at the beginning of the training which increased to a level of disappointment by the end of the programme.

'Although I am not good at listening, I am confident and I think I will get improvement in the end. However, the more I listen, the more I feel it is difficult. The teacher recommended us to take notes while listening, but I can't write while listening, I am frustrated…gradually… I even don't like to go to listening class'.

Students explained that there is no much difference between what being taught in the training and their previous listening methods. As the student CG2-12H mentioned that *'well, the listening method is the same as what I have been told from my previous teacher, that's it'.* For some lower proficiency students even worse, *as they are more depressed and stressed to listening after receiving training but little progress. As CG2-14L reported 'I feel upset after the training, I give up practicing from mid of programme, as I really can't get it, it's hopeless…'.* The stress also comes from peers, *'I am disappointed with myself when I compare with my friends, I fall behind…'.*

Because of the high pressure from peers, more difficult listening tasks and less clear and effective listening comprehension instruction, the control group students tended to have negative attitudes and showed less interest in receiving listening comprehension training. These results correspond to the quantitative findings that listening comprehension training has little influence on the promotion of higher perceived-value of listening comprehension training in the control group.

While the students in the control group reflected that they were being asked to have an intensive listening comprehension practice in the class. According to the researcher's field note, 'intensive listening comprehension practice in the conventional listening comprehension training is that one monologue will be played at least five times and let students note down as much as information they can, then refer to their notes to answer the questions. Most of the students applied intensive listening methodology when practicing alone. Like CG3-10H said, 'I use the same method as being taught in the training to practice, it should be helpful and that is how I do it'. Similarly, the student CG1-28 who always previews the listening tasks before the listening comprehension training said, 'only I listen to the

audio at least three times before the training, I could follow the teacher better in the training…'. However, although the control group's students have awareness that to keep practicing and taking notes, it is less likely to find out various methods or strategies to facilitate their listening comprehension development.

To summarize, these findings from two groups indicated that comparisons with control group, the experimental group's students have a more variable choice in terms of listening strategies, they clearly reported the most impressive strategies that carried out in the training class, evaluated it and reflected their thoughts. However, the reflected of gained listening strategies and methods in the control group were limited in certain listening comprehension methods. The control group students mainly applied the same listening methods when they practice, but they were unlikely to explain the reasons of it, just because they believed the teacher's methods were helpful and they did not have a better choice. Therefore, the control group's students had fewer reflections on listening comprehension training or evaluation of listening strategies use.

6.6 The relationship between the listening strategy use and self-efficacy

This study also explored the correlation between the listening strategy use and self-efficacy on pre- and post-questionnaire in both groups. As we can see from Appendix 16, the Pearson correlation result has shown that there was a very strong, positive correlation in the listening strategy use and self-efficacy in both pre (EG: $r=.504$, $N= 74$, $p<.001$; CG: $r=.510$, $N= 72$, $p<.001$) and post-questionnaires (EG: $r=.705$, $N= 74$, $p<.001$; CG: $r=.418$, $N=72$, $p<.001$) for two groups. Compared with the pre-questionnaire($r=.504$) in the experimental group, the $r=.705$ in the post-questionnaire showed a stronger correlation between listening strategy use and the self-efficacy development. The result of the control group shows a positive correlation but its strength of the relationship (r) remains at a similar level for pre- and post-questionnaires in the control group.

6.7 The outcome of listening comprehension training

The other main reflection from the students' interviews are that to what extent does listening comprehension training promote the students' self-efficacy development. The listening comprehension training: 1) contributed to developing positive beliefs and attitudes of being listeners 2) and motivating students for future independent listening comprehension practicing.

a) The belief and attitude changes of being listeners

The interviews from the experimental group's students reflected the changes of perceptions as a learner, which has indicated the listening strategy shape the students' view that conceptualize themselves as English learners. Most students talked through their personal experience through how the treatment reduced their anxiety of listening comprehension and started to enjoyment. For example, EG1-17L said:

'I feel less nervous when I am listening, even sometimes I am able to completely understand the meaning of listening materials, but I still force myself to listen until the end of dialogues, because I can catch some words in this process. Listening is not that terrifying…'

EG3-3H: 'I feel I made a big progress after the training, I am more confident when I practice listening comprehension, and have a higher accuracy rate'.

EG2-3L: 'I benefit from the treatment a lot, especially when I pay more attention to listening, the more I can write down, the more confidence I get'.

EG1-17L pointed out: 'although my listening comprehension ability is lower, it is not a pain'. Besides, for the higher-level students like EG3-3H, who has expressed more interests in listening, *'…compared with other English language skill training, I prefer the listening, as it helps me improve and I enjoy the process of listening'*.

Another student EG1-4H expressed similar feedback, she explained a changing process of being an active listener,

> '*I used to think I should have a better understanding while listening, as I got a score in the English exam but I was afraid of listening, I was frustrated when listening materials are difficult… but I get used to practicing listening now, even sometimes in particularly watch some English films to check how much I can understand'.*

Moreover, when the listening strategy instruction contributes to facilitating listening comprehension, it helps the experimental group's students get a sense of achievement by strategy application to guide students in a positive way, especially for experimental group's students such as EG3-24P. This student made great progress between the pre- and post-tests, she explained *'when I was applying some listening strategies that the teacher introduced, e.g. get some clues to guess, I comprehended the listening materials and analyzed the content of multiple-choice, then made a choice. I got a bit higher score in the end. This process made me realize that I have the potential ability to improve listening comprehension by applying listening strategies to comprehend listening materials'.*

Additionally, some students were more likely to be inspired after the intervention to explore how to apply to the learning strategies. EG2-3H said: *'this treatment is just a beginning, the more I think, I may apply the skills and strategies to other language skills e.g. reading*.

b) A promoted motivation for future independent listening comprehension practice

Beside the self-efficacy development and effective listening strategies, the interviews also reflected motivation by the students in both groups by the training and had shown greater desire for more independent practice. As EG3-16P said: *'I have practiced a bit when I was in high school but just for a short time… I don't*

particularly like practicing listening comprehension, however, I think the whole training makes me start to think I may have potential ability to improve it by practicing more, I will be more patient… it just takes time…'

Some students have set a clear goal to achieve, for example, set higher expectation on the development of listening comprehension skills, and their upcoming English language test. As the higher proficiency student CG2-12H said:

'I will practice and I have a goal, I will try to get sixty percent correct by the end of September (in 9months), and eight percent correction in 1.5 years'.

Another two students highlighted EG1-4H that the training gives them a sense of their weakness of English listening comprehension, they need to practice and get the improvement that they need for the future professional English test.

EG1-4H: 'I think I will have a listening practice plan for the future, especially I need to prepare for the TEM-4 test (Test for English majors, band 4), which involves more News listening and long dialogues. These two are difficult for me, I will focus on practicing these two sections more…'

CG2-17L: 'I need to practice as I need to take TEM-4 test soon, the training makes me realize that my listening comprehension is very poor, I have to work on it'.

Some other students were influenced by listening strategies when they choose the listening materials, for example, *Eg3-21L mentioned:*

'I will carry out the strategy of repeating, my English listening comprehension is very bad, I want to listen to the listening materials which I have practiced in the treatment…'

Similarly, EG3-16P also highlight her choice, *'I will try to practice it every day, I may continue to use our listening textbook to practice, also I would like to find a more relaxing way to practice a bit, like watching an English series or movie'. The other two students who also indicated their methodology of practice with the same materials* to seek different English resources to improve English comprehension ability, they reported:

'I want to memorize more English words, and listen to the materials which I have practiced before'(CG2-14L).

'I will find more listening materials from VOA and the BBC, I would like to watch American series, imitate their talking and memorize some of the lines, which I think is interesting. I will also try to talk to different people when there is an opportunity to practice listening and speaking' (CG3-10H).

For some lower proficiency students, they are not only motivated to practice but also choose a proper level to start or some aspects which have relation to listening proficiency, for example, EG1-17L chose to correct the pronunciation of words first and said: 'I would like to start from the pronunciation correction, as I cannot read words accurately, even for some simple words, I definitely know it but I can't get it when I listen….' While CG1-28 chose to start with some easier listening materials to build up my confidence, then challenge myself to more difficult ones.

c) Summary

To summarize, the findings of interviews provide more evidence for results regarding the situated-demonstration of listening strategy had significantly

influenced in the self-efficacy development of the experimental group's students. The students reflected that the process of attitude changes in llistening and their belief that they possess the capability to listen and comprehend listening materials. Moreover, both group's students have been motivated for independent listening comprehension practice. The students increased higher expectations of listening comprehension and interests of listening to different listening sources. They set their goals and recognize their weakness of listening comprehension, creating future plans to work on improvement.

6.8 Summary

This chapter mainly presented the findings of verbal reports and students' interviews. It started with the introduction of qualitative content analysis (QAC), then provided the coding procedure and framework of the verbal reports. The findings of verbal reports from students with different listening proficiency were displayed separately. The findings indicated that conventional listening comprehension training enhanced the students' short-term memory but has little guidance for students on listening comprehension skills or listening strategy use. For the experimental group, it can be seen that students' short-term memory was also enhanced by situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction. Moreover, the advanced listeners developed comprehensive strategy use ability. They were able to combine and apply the different listening strategies in one listening task. The awareness of listening strategy use has also been developed among middle-level students. In the later sections, the coding process and the findings of the students' interviews were presented. The findings of the interviews provided the factors that influence students' perceived value of listening comprehension training in two groups. This explained the quantitative results of the perceived value of listening comprehension training in the questionnaire. The final section was about the outcome of listening comprehension training. It reflected upon the ways that listening comprehension training promote students' self-efficacy development in both of the groups. The next chapter is going to have a discussion in terms of quantitative and qualitative findings of this research and its contributions in the area of language learning strategy.

Chapter 7 Discussion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results presented in chapter 4, chapter 5 and chapter 6, and provides the empirical evidence that correspond to the current research in second language listening and listening strategy instruction. According to the results from the previous findings, this discussion is divided into 9 sections, which includes the effect of strategy instruction on listening comprehension performance (7.2), the influence of strategy instruction across different listening comprehension proficiency levels (7.3) and students' perceived value of listening comprehension training after the treatment (7.4). It also discusses the strategies use related issues, for example, the reasons of strategy use promotion (7.5). The section 7.6 discusses the most frequently used listening strategies, at the same time, it reflects the listening processing of students with different listening proficiency levels. The following 7.7 discusses the outcome of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction on students, especially their self-efficacy development. Finally, the value of situated-demonstration of listening strategy design has also been analysed and presented in section 7.8. The current chapter is summarized at the end of the chapter (7.9).

7.2 The effect of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction on the listening comprehension performance

Listening comprehension is one of the important skills in second-language teaching and learning (Oxford, 1993; Clement, 2007), but it is also a complex process of transforming perceived wave signals into understanding of the conveyed messages (Rost,2011). Learning strategies are 'behaviours or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable' (Oxford, 1989:235). Many researchers (Goh & Taib, 2006; Vandergrift, 2005; Yenkimaleki & Vincent, 2016; Moradi, 2013) have been exploring the effect of listening strategy instruction and find out to what extent does the listening strategy instruction influence the learners' listening comprehension performance.

In my research, in order to explore the effect of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction on students' listening comprehension performance between

groups, I have tested both groups' students' listening comprehension performance before and after the treatment (see chapter 4). The results have been analysed by the independent t-tests, which the p-value is less than 0.05 that indicates there is a significant difference between groups and the treatment works. Therefore, according to the results of independent t-tests, the p-value of post-test was 0.033 that was less than 0.05, which indicated there was a significant difference between groups. In other words, the experimental group' students who received situated-demonstration of strategy instruction significantly outperformed those in the control group in the post-test. This finding of the present study provides empirical evidence that the positive effect of listening strategy instruction, which is in line with the studies that highlight the importance role of listening strategy instruction in better L2 listening comprehension development (Moradi (2013), Chamot (2005), Vandergrift (2003; 2004), Lynch and Mendelsohn (2002) and Rost (2002) Gramham &Macaro, 2008; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari (2010).

The quantitative results purported the findings of Moradi (2013) that the explicit strategy instruction has significantly influenced on listening comprehension and it does benefit language learners. Different from Moradi (2013), the instruction approach in this research not only included the approach of explicit explanation of strategy use, but also asked teacher to demonstrate how to apply strategies in specific listening tasks. The two groups of students were in the same level the treatment (p-value 0.181 is bigger than 0.05), while the experimental group's students (M=67.84) had better performance than the control group' s students (M=63.06) in the post-test. This indicated that the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction had helped experimental group's students achieve a better performance than the control's group. Therefore, the innovative strategy instruction contributed to a better performance in listening comprehension development. It also provided an example of innovative strategy instruction approach, which may have the potential possibilities to be developed and carried out in the different context of listening comprehension trainings.

7.3 The effect of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction across different listening comprehension proficiency levels

In this research, I not only explored the general effect of listening strategy instruction between two groups (EG and CG), but also investigated to what extend does innovative strategy instruction affect the listening comprehension performance of students with different listening proficiency levels (see section 4.3 in Chapter 4). The experimental group's students have been divided into three levels (lower, middle and higher). Therefore, there is a comparison between the pre-and post-tests across the students with lower, middle and higher listening comprehension levels in the experimental group. As the comparison within a group, a paired t-test was carried out. The p-value of lower and middle level were less than 0.05, which indicated that there were statistically significant differences at the lower and middle levels' students between pre- and post- tests. In other words, the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction have stronger effect on both the lower and middle-level students, but less helpful for the higher-level students (P value was bigger than 0.05). The less skilled listeners made progress after the treatment, and the strategy instruction positively influence on the lower- and middle- level students in terms of listening comprehension improvement.

Among the three levels, the lower students made the greatest improvement, which means increase from 43 to 53. While the most skilled (higher-level) students were less likely to improve across the study (means decrease from 83 to 75). This finding suggests that the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction contributes to the lower and middle level listener's understanding, which supports those of God and Taib (2006) and Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari (2010) who also noted that the listening strategy instruction can be effective for improving the listening comprehension of less skilled listeners. Besides, the field notes reported the changes of students' performance in the training that is an increasing correct rate of listening tasks with more interactions with teacher and peers (see 4.4). Therefore, the progress of lower- and middle-level students was not only showed on higher post-test scores but also the outcome of innovative instruction by the quantitative data.

However, based on the reflections of field notes, the advanced listeners who showed higher interests and actively participated in listening comprehension training at the beginning of the training, they were able to more frequently got correct answers to the listening tasks (see chapter 4). These reflections indicated that advanced students may already have a good knowledge of listening skills and strategies, therefore, such short-term training may not be able to satisfy their needs. This finding is line with the explanation of Cross (2010) who explained that the advanced listeners already establishing a comparatively solid level of listening skills and strategies, so participating in the pedagogical cycle made little difference on students' listening comprehension. Therefore, the strategy instruction may help less-skilled listeners develop their listening ability.

7.4 The perceived value of listening comprehension training

In this research, strategy instruction not only contributed to a better listening comprehension performance, but also affected the listeners' perceived value of listening comprehension training. Students' opinion of listening comprehension training value depends on the whether the training could satisfy their needs or requirements. In this research, the two groups' students who received different training approaches and their opinion of listening comprehension training have been influenced accordingly. All the students took pre- and post- questionnaire, the means of experimental group were 3.83 and 4.24 before and after the treatment, through a comparison of means in paired t-tests, the p-value 0.000 was lower 0.05. Therefore, the experimental group' students showed a statistically significant difference in perceived value of listening comprehension training after the treatment (see chapter five). In other words, the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction contributes to increasing the value of listening comprehension training from the students' perspectives.

However, the control group's students were less effected by the conventional training approach in terms of how much they value the listening comprehension training. The means were 3.51 and 3.60 in the pre- and post-questionnaire respectively (see 5.2). As the p-value was 0.334 that was bigger than 0.05, there

was no significant difference in perceived value of listening comprehension training difference between pre- and post- questionnaires. Therefore, the conventional listening is less helpful to increase perceived-value of listening comprehension training. The results of both groups proved that the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction not only improved less skilled students' listening comprehension performance, but also developed an idea that listening comprehension skills could be developed by certain strategy instruction to achieve a better understanding of text. These findings are in line with other studies (e.g. Cross, 2009; Carrier,2003; Rahimirad & Zare-ee,2015) which pointed that the explicit strategy instruction benefits listening comprehension performance improvement and a positive attitude to listening comprehension training.

7.5 The effect of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction on listening strategy use

Ho (2006: 25) defines listening strategies as '…skills or methods for listeners to directly or indirectly achieve the purpose of listening comprehension of the spoken input'. Plenty of studies (e.g. Chen, Zhang & Liu,2014; Graham, 2003) recommend that listening strategies should be applied in the process of listening comprehension to facilitate a better understanding. The second section of questionnaire was designed to find out the strategy use by listeners, which includes metacognitive strategy, cognitive strategy and social affective strategy. The results concerning the effect of strategy instruction on the reported listening strategy use, drawing on the questionnaire and verbal report manifested a similar picture of the changes in strategy use. A paired t-test compared the mean of strategy use between pre- and post- questionnaire in the experimental group, the means were 3.00 and 3.51 respectively before and after the treatment. The p-value 0.000 was less than 0.05 that showed there was a statistical difference, which indicated the innovative strategy instruction affect the students of their strategy use and encourage more frequently strategy use.

As I mentioned in chapter four, the strategy instruction embedded in actual listening comprehension tasks of the textbook, and the experimental group's

teacher recommended the listening tasks which allowed students to practice listening strategies after teacher's demonstration (see Appendix 3). The strategy use promotion in the experimental group provided evidence that situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction could be embedded in listening tasks, let students consciously practice certain listening strategies in the listening tasks could enhance listening strategy use ability. This result supported Field (2010) that 'listening strategy should be embedded in actual comprehension tasks so that the strategy can be matched to the problems of understanding that gave rise to it'.

7.6 The most frequently used listening strategies and learners' listening processing

Through comparing the means of the items on strategy use between pre- and post -questionnaire, the top five strategies had been frequently used and selected by the both groups' students. These strategies that two groups' students applied were quite similar, which mainly about used metacognitive strategies to regulate and monitor their listening comprehension and cognitive strategies to comprehend listening material. For example, write down the key words, take notes, highlight important information, use non-linguistic or previous knowledge (see 5.5). However, the means of these most frequently used strategies in experimental group are higher after the treatment. In other words, students applied the same strategies more often after receiving the treatment. For example, the item 3 and 24 of the questionnaire were the top strategies that students applied, which were metacognitive strategies - keep the concentration and ignore the irrelevant distraction. The means of these listening strategies use have been increased from the 4.2 and 3.8 to 4.3 and 4.1 respectively, as the means were closer to 5 (always or most always true of me), the students more frequently applied these strategies. Besides, there were three cognitive strategies were also applied more by the students, for example a better understanding of key words (item 22), repeat listening for clarification (item 23 & 26). The quantitative data reflected the general increasing view of higher frequently strategy use. It also provided the specific data to support the promotion of listening strategy use after the treatment by showing increased means of same strategy use. This result is in line with many researchers

(Goh, 2018; Yeldham & Gruba,2016; Kazemi & Kiamarsi, 2017) who believe the strategy instruction promotes listening strategies use consciously or unconsciously.

Meanwhile, these quantitative results have been expanded and reflected on a qualitative way - the students' verbal reports (see 6.2). It was interesting to find that the top five strategies were cognitive strategies and unlikely addressed on the metacognitive strategies. This may because the verbal report happened in the listening comprehension test condition, students mainly reported how did they sorted out the answers to the questions, the metacognitive strategies (e.g. planning and evaluation) were unlikely involved in such a short period. Generally speaking, the reflected cognitive strategies from both pre- and post- verbal reports in the experimental group's student were the same, which were memory (29% & 27.8%), analysis of expressions (63.6% & 68.6) and intelligent guessing (7.4% & 3.6%) (see table 6-2). However, the strategy use ability has been developed accordingly by the students with different listening proficiency levels.

As can be seen through the comparison between the pre- and post- verbal report from different levels' students in the experimental group (see Chapter six), all the students have been enhanced their short-term memory, as more detailed notes, paraphrases and summaries can be found from the post-verbal reports. This finding supported Gilakjan & Ahmadi's opinion (2011) that one of the goals of listening comprehension training is to strengthen the students' immediate recall in order to increase their memory spans'. Especially for the lower and middle- level students, they were able to catch more information while listening and develop awareness of listening strategy use. While the higher-level students were able to develop a comprehensive ability to apply multiple listening strategies in one listening tasks to facilitate listening comprehension. For example, based on memory, the advanced listeners comprehend listening materials by applying a combination of other strategies then work out the answers to the questions. It proved that being advanced listeners requires more than memory work, listeners need to receive the information in target language, apply the prior knowledge of the world to think and comprehend the content of listening materials with

appropriate listening strategies. These findings indicated that although the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction was less helpful for the advanced listeners, it actually enhanced their strategy use ability and developed their listening comprehension skills. This is in line with Field (1998; 2000) that listening strategy instruction may not necessarily contribute to improving listening comprehension performance but may promote the use of those strategies, and strategies may be applied in combination and appropriately by listeners. Meanwhile, this listening processing also reflected the nature of listening as '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' (Purdy, 1997:8).

7.7 The outcome of the innovative strategy instruction on self-efficacy development

1) The quantitative results of self-efficacy development

Self-efficacy is about learners' beliefs in their abilities to perform a task (Bandura, 1986) and their beliefs of capabilities always influence their learning performance (Raoofi et al,2012). In this research, the relationship between the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction and self-efficacy developed has been explored in section C of the pre- and post- questionnaire. The paired t-test was carried out to compare the means of self-efficacy development between pre- and post- questionnaire within the group (see 7.7). As a result, the p-value 0.016 of experimental group that was less than 0.05, which indicated there was a significant difference on learners' self-efficacy between pre- and post-questionnaire. In other words, the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction has positively influenced on learners' self-efficacy development, the students' beliefs in their abilities to comprehend listening material have been enhanced by the innovative strategy instruction. This provided more evidence to support a view proposed by Graham (2011) that listening strategy instruction has potential to boost self-efficacy belief.

There are some studies emphasizing the importance of self-efficacy development and explored the relationship between EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs and English performance or learning strategy use (e.g. Chen, 2007; Yılmaz, 2010, Graham, 2007). While learners' self-efficacy development after the treatment provided the empirical evidence that there was a relationship between situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction and self-efficacy development. The 'awareness raising' of multiple strategies use by the explicit strategy instruction over a certain period of time was effectively helpful for learner self-efficacy (Graham and Macaro, 2008). Besides, this finding also contributed the knowledge that this innovative strategy instruction not only contributed to better listening comprehension performance, but also promoted a better self-awareness about how capable they are of performing specific listening comprehension task. It provided the evidence that the development of self-efficacy belief is actually a process for students to find out and answer the question of motivational behavior: 'Can I do this task?' (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990: 33–34). The performance of enhanced learners' belief in listening comprehension can be found in students' interviews (see 6.7) and will be discussed more in the following sections.

2) Positive attitudes and beliefs of being active listeners

As I mentioned in chapter four and eight, there were 16 students with different listening comprehension proficiency levels have been interviewed. They have been asked about their attitude towards listening comprehension, the individuals' beliefs of listening comprehension ability, listening strategies use and a self-reflection of whole listening comprehension trainings. One of the treatment outcomes was listeners' positive attitudes and beliefs of being listeners (see 6.7-a), the students have been more motivated to overcome their fear of listening comprehension and challenge listening comprehension tasks. Students' verbal reports have shown that listeners with different listening proficiency levels have developed ability to select and coordinate strategies for different needs (see 6.3), and their beliefs of listening comprehension ability have been enhanced accordingly. Although the listening strategy instruction may not directly improve the learners' listening comprehension performance in a short period, the strategy instruction enhanced their beliefs with more solid level of understanding of acting out listening strategies, which encourage them to be more positive and would like to challenge more difficult tasks (see 6.4-c). This finding is corresponding to

Thompson and Rubin's (1996) study, which argued an interventional approach not only improved the learners' listening ability, but also stimulated their motivation to challenge their extracurricular listening with more difficult texts.

On the other hand, based on the results of the comparison between pre- and post-verbal reports and the students' interviews, it can be found that the listeners were being encouraged by their listening comprehension improvement and their positive attitudes was built up by applying general strategies to regulate their listening (metacognitive strategies) and specific strategies to comprehend listening tasks (cognitive strategies). Influenced by the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction, students reduced their anxiety and actively found different exercise to improve their listening comprehension ability (see 6.7-b). They also made more detailed plans about their listening comprehension practice and focused more on the 'knowledge of listening strategies' and 'ability of listening strategy use' which promote their sense of independent (see 6.4 & 6.7). Therefore, the innovative strategy instruction and listening strategy use promoted students' positive attitudes towards listening comprehension practice and enhanced their beliefs that they have the ability to improve their listening comprehension. This finding supported Nac Style and Noels (1996:383) who argue that '…strategies contribute to a sense of mastery over the learning process that would reduce uncertainty and anxiety, and maintain or improve both attitudes and motivation'.

7.8 The value of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction design

1)Teacher involved in the handbook design of strategy instruction

In the studies of listening comprehension improvement on ESL, as mentioned in chapter 2&3, the listening strategies were introduced by the teachers in various approaches (e.g. oral, communicative or strategy-based approach). Many researchers (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Duffy, 2002; Carrier, 2003; Rahimirad, 2014;) suggested in the research that strategy instruction needs to be explicit, and it is being introduced in many teaching practice as well as explored by researchers

in second language listening (e.g. Carrier, 2003; Cross, 2009; Cross 2010). In the research of Gilakjan & Ahmadi (2011), which suggested that listening comprehension lessons should be structured with a careful step by step planning. With the features of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction and structure teaching planning, the handbook of strategy instruction in my research was newly designed to explain the definition of strategies, illustrate how to demonstrate it and located it in the specific listening tasks.

Moreover, this is an intervention research, the teacher's understanding of this intervention may impact the effect of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction on students. Therefore, although the design of the research was done by the researcher, the researcher had an effective communication (see 3.6) with the experimental group lecturer. This teacher was hesitated from the beginning when she was told there would be a different teaching approach to deliver listening comprehension training, as she had no idea how to carry it out. However, involving the teacher in the booklet design has solved this issue. I designed the booklet from the beginning and explained the purpose of design to her, asked her to give the suggestion and modify it. The teacher could put her idea in the booklet design, for example, based on her understanding of listening materials, she suggested more appropriate exercises that could be used for certain strategy practice (see chapter 3). This process of booklet design supported but not limited by the idea of handbook design that textbook and teacher's book should be able to guide teachers throughout their teaching. The booklet design process was a good opportunity for the participated teacher to get a full understanding of this interventional study's purpose and teaching goals.

The booklet provided the teacher with relevant theories and made suggestions on what activities should be taken in listening class and in what way to train students in different listening strategies (Gilakjan & Ahmadi, 2011). As the experimental group's teacher mentioned in her interview, this well-designed strategy teaching of listening comprehension contributed to achieving teaching goal and focusing on specific listening strategies to practice in each training session. At the same time, the innovative strategy instruction created a positive environment, which enabled

her to introduce listening strategies by actively demonstrating and sharing with personal learning experience.

This method of booklet design provided a good example that that strategy instruction includes teacher's preparation, evaluation and expansion of strategy instruction (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994). It also brought the experimental group's teacher with a different teaching experience of listening comprehension. As the teacher mentioned in her interview, this preparation process actually benefits her to develop a different perspective that how could the listening comprehension curriculum could be designed and more effectively carried out. The teacher was involved in the intervention design, the booklet integrated into regular teaching materials and listening strategies were demonstrated by the teacher. This involvement of the teacher is rare in language learning strategy and strategy instruction, which contributed to a new methodology in the interventional study design.

2) Situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction facilitates a better understanding of listening strategies

Carrier (2003) 's research explored whether the targeted listening strategy instruction in the ESL classroom result in a better understanding in the academic English language class. After receiving 15 listening strategy training sessions, participants showed a statistically significant improvement in terms of the video listening ability and notetaking ability. It also suggested that targeted listening strategy instruction should be part of the ESL curriculum. In my research, the experimental group students received the strategies instruction that were designed and targeted in the handbook of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction, which guided the teacher on when and how to carry out strategy instruction. From the students' interviews, it can be found that the situated-demonstration listening strategy instruction was one of important factors that influenced their perceived value of listening comprehension training (see 6.4). It provided students a different language learning experience that the students

mentioned that they knew exactly what task was and in what way did the teacher applied listening strategies to facilitate listening comprehension when she demonstrated it. Besides, teacher's personal learning experience encouraged and inspired students not to take difficulties of listening comprehension personally, instead, rather to be more positive when they face the challenges and try to work it out (see 6.4).This instruction design highlighted the importance of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction on students' understanding of listening strategies, it also contributed the knowledge that the situate-demonstration of listening strategy instruction not only focused on demonstrate how to use strategies for students, but also created a space where the teacher could be personal, draw on her own experience, as a way of 'demonstrating' the listening strategies.

3) Teachers' role in the enhancing language learning strategies

In the past, language learning strategies seem to be about language learners and it should influence language learners' behavior. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) focus on language learning processes. Oxford (1990) mainly talks about what teachers should know to help students become more active, self-directed and effective learners. Griffiths (2007) does show a knowledge of the importance of teachers regard strategy use. My research gives an important role for the teacher in developing language learning strategies and listening comprehension. Because the strategy instruction is effective when it is an integral part of teaching, part of the teacher's expertise and what the teacher plans and implements. My contribution is a way to work with the teacher to develop the enhancement of language learning strategies in taught programme. This is the gap in the research of language learning strategy and strategy instruction.

7.9 Summary

This chapter gave a discussion of the findings of the study. It discussed the effect of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction on students should

include but not limited to listening comprehension performance. It also paid attention to the outcome of the innovative strategy instruction, for example, positive attitude changes and self-efficacy development of listening comprehension, higher perceived-value of listening comprehension and enhancement of listening strategy use. Besides, this innovative strategy instruction was different from other studies, because the involvement of teacher in the booklet design and the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction were embedded in teacher's work and actual listening tasks of students' listening comprehension textbook. This intervention study not only transformed students' experience of listening comprehension development, but also the teachers' experience of teaching. These features contributed to the uniqueness of the study.

Chapter 8 Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

The final chapter will summarize the findings covered in this study with regard to research questions (section 8.2). Then it highlights the contribution of the study (section 8.3) and mentions the limitations in section 8.4. In addition, there are some suggestions for the future research study in terms of examining the effect of strategy instruction in different contexts, long-term intervention programme design and implementing research with the cooperation of the teachers (section 8.5) in language skills development. The final part (8.6) reflect researcher's personal learning and implications for the teachers and researchers.

8.2 The findings to the research questions

RQ 1a. To what extent does situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction contribute to the development of listening comprehension?

The results of pre- and post-tests before and after the treatment were used to find out the effect of innovative strategy instruction on listening comprehension performance. As we can see from chapter four, two groups of students were in the same listening proficiency levels before the treatment. However, there was a significant difference in their listening comprehension performance in post-test, which the experimental group students outperformed than the control group students.

Besides, the effect of strategy instruction on students with different listening proficiency levels was also tested. Based on results of university entrance English exam, the students were divided into three levels in each group, which includes lower (under 100 mark), middle (100-120 mark) and higher level (above 120 mark). The means of each level were measured by paired t-test (see. 6.4). As the results, the comparison between three levels in experimental group has shown that the less skilled listeners (lower and middle level) made a bigger progress than

the higher- level students. In other words, the strategy instruction contributes to more benefits less skilled students more (see 7.2).

RQ 1b. How are the learners with different listening abilities similar or different in their listening processing?

As mentioned in chapter three, the students wrote down the verbal reports while and after listening, these verbal reports aimed to instantly reflect students' thoughts and listening comprehension methods after listening. Based on the result from the students' verbal report and the section of strategy use in questionnaire, I found that the strategy which includes memory (remembering key words, original sentences), analysis of expression, intelligent guessing and identification of purpose were mostly reflected from both groups' students. This result indicated that all the students largely rely on their short-term memory to comprehend listening materials and the strategy of note taking has been developed accordingly, they also prefer to use the clues to comprehend or predict the topic to get the answer.

While compared the verbal reports of students with different listening proficiency levels in two groups, there were some differences. The advanced students of control group could write down more long and complex sentences after listening comprehension training, while the post-verbal reports from experimental group were more systematic and detailed. They were able to combine and apply the different listening strategies in one listening task, which is different from the control group's advanced students. The pre- and post-verbal reports of lower and middle-level students in control group showed little difference, while the same level students in experimental group showed more strategy use from the post-verbal report. The post-verbal report of experimental group students also explained how it helped to comprehend the listening materials. Besides, the lower-level students in the experimental group showed a better note-taking skill development than the control group, as more completed sentences have been written down, and

students occasionally explained the importance of it in comprehending the listening tasks.

RQ 1c. What are the most frequently used listening strategies employed by the undergraduate students?

This study also explored the effect of listening comprehension training on the listening strategy use. The results of paired t-tests in both groups showed that students were promoted to apply listening strategies after the listening comprehension training (see 7.2). Besides, based on the results of strategy use in pre- and post-questionnaire, the top five frequently used listening strategies were selected (see 7.6). It included select the attention, key words, take notes, highlight important information, use non-linguistic or previous knowledge. From these strategies, it can be concluded that most of students often highlight important information to select their attention, recall the memory (e.g. write down key words or take note) and use prior or non-linguistic knowledge to comprehend the listening materials.

RQ 2a. To what extent does the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction affect learners' self-efficacy (motivation, attitude, beliefs) development?

Self-efficacy is about learners' beliefs in their capabilities to complete a task, as it affects their learners' learning performance and motivation. This studied explored the effect of listening comprehension training on students' self-efficacy development. As it was introduced in chapter four, the section C of the questionnaire collected the self-efficacy information of the both groups' students. The results of paired t-tests showed there was a significant difference in experimental group, it indicated that the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction promoted students' self-efficacy development (see 7.7). While the conventional listening comprehension training less contributed to enhancing the control group's students' beliefs of their abilities to comprehend listening

materials, as the p-value was more than 0.05. Besides the quantitative results, sixteen students with different listening proficiency levels were interviewed. As it was mentioned in chapter six and seven, the experimental group's students developed positive attitudes and belief of being listeners. They explained the process of listening comprehension, reflected their thoughts of their progress. They were encouraged to overcome their fears of listening comprehension, made independent listening comprehension practice plans and challenge listening comprehension tasks.

RQ 2b. To what extent does the situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction affect the students' perceived value of English listening comprehension training?

Section A of the questionnaire provided the data of students' perceived value of listening comprehension training, the results of paired t-tests within two groups showed there was a significant difference in experimental group, which the experimental group's students raised their perceived value of listening comprehension training after the treatment. While the control group' students were not significantly influenced by the conventional listening comprehension training. It indicated that situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction has positively affect students' perspectives that how they value the listening comprehension training. Moreover, the students' interviews provided more insight information of these results. The experimental group' students gave positive comments on situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction, they explained the three factors of this innovative teaching approach that contributed to a positive perceived-value development of listening comprehension training. They were situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction, listening strategy related listening comprehension practice and higher interest of listening strategy use promotion. Meanwhile, the control group's students reflected that the conventional listening comprehension training mainly enhancing their understanding of listening materials by repeating. The students were passively listening and receiving the information as it was asked by the teacher in the class. There was less interaction between teacher and students, most of time they just followed the teacher and

they had little idea about the reasons behind these practices. Therefore, the conventional listening comprehension training less affected perceived-value of listening comprehension training.

8.3 Contribution

This intervention study applies the idea of situated-demonstration of strategy instruction that suggested by Irvine-Niakaris and Kiely (2015) on listening comprehension development. It is one of the first studies in which situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction is embedded and integrated into teacher's work and regular listening teaching and practice materials. The teacher helps to refine the booklet, and although the teacher follows the research design to demonstrate the listening strategies, there is still a space where the teacher could be personal, drawing on her own learning experience, as a way of 'demonstrating' the listening strategy. Therefore, the teacher is actively participating in this intervention study rather than passively receiving the guidance from the booklet. The involvement of the teacher contributes to bringing a different teaching experience from the lesson preparation to classroom teaching for the teacher. It is also a start for the teacher to think of teaching approach change – how to effectively deliver listening strategy instruction by situated-demonstration and develop it as a routine in classroom life.

Besides, this study identifies a more specific role for the teachers in enhancing language learning strategies. As we know, LLS contributes to strengthening language learning outcomes (e.g. self-efficacy development, learning attitude, motivation). My study shows that enhancing the language learning strategies with the collaboration with the teachers has a beneficial impact, particularly for the lower-level learners who do not work out the best strategies for themselves. This finding contributes to the knowledge of the important role of the teachers in the LLS development.

8.4 Limitations

This study has some limitations and the discussion of these will be the issues where future research should take into considerations and addressed in the future research. It includes 1) the limited opportunities methodologically for accessing the listening comprehension process; 2) limited time for transforming the teachers' practice.

As it is mentioned in the chapter two, listening comprehension is not just passively receiving information, it is more like an interactive and dynamic cognitive process. The ability of listening comprehension often determines how much information has been received, comprehended and understood by listeners. This study was looking at the effect of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction on listening comprehension performance and its outcome. However, the listening process is invisible and a range of factors shape the listening process. It is difficult to measure the listening processing development, because only listeners themselves know exactly how much they understood. Compared with reading comprehension, where eye-tracking could give some clues to the cognitive processing, there are no such indicators for listening comprehension. Therefore, there are limited methodological opportunities for assessing the listening processing.

The other major limitation in the time is the process of transforming the teachers' practice. According to Kiely (2018:7), 'it is not easily to change teachers' practice in response to curriculum reforms and policy changes', teachers' practices must be integrated into teachers' thinking and to become routine and automated in classroom life (Prabhu, 1990). In order to achieve this, Hiver (as cited in Richard, 2018:9) suggested, 'teachers much engage at a deep level with the ideas that underpin innovation and change'. Although the experimental group's teacher was involved in the interventional booklet design and she was happy to change her teaching approach and follow the booklet to teach, this teacher practice change is slow and gradual and it takes time for teachers to fit new ideas to their classrooms (Kiely & Davis, 2010). As the teacher mentioned in her interview, this innovative

strategy instruction is a different teaching experience, it takes time for her to completely change and fit the new approach to her daily teaching practice. However, my research did not have a lot of time to allow the teachers to consolidate the new teaching approach.

8.5 Suggestion for future study

The present research has explored EFL listening comprehension development, it also has raised some issues, which need to take into consideration for the further research.

This study carried out among the first-year undergraduates in China, and the results of this study need to be validated in different context with various language learners. If future research could provide further support to the findings of this study, it would have significant implications for situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction would be significant.

Listening comprehension development is a long-term process. In this study, the data were collected at the beginning and the end of treatment (pre- and post-tests). It might be worthwhile to design a long-term programme and arrange a delayed post-test, which could examine the effect of strategy instruction on self-efficacy and listening comprehension over longer period.

Last but not least, the attention to intervention study design in second language teaching should not only focus on the role of researchers, but also involve teachers' needs and suggestions. It is suggested that research in language skills development should cooperate with teachers in various ways (e.g. booklet design). As it takes time for teachers to change their thinking and develop a 'sense of plausibility'(Prabhu,1990:172), it could be helpful to provide teachers with more time for them to understand and adapt the innovative teaching approach in the classroom and curricula.

8.6 Personal learning and implications

I have experienced how students feel when they are struggling due to poor listening comprehension, which motivated me to explore how to improve listening comprehension performance in my PhD study. After four years, I complete my study that makes the contribution to knowledge in language learning strategy and situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction. In addition, when I work as a listening &speaking tutor in the pre-sessional course at the University of Southampton, the idea of situated-demonstration of listening strategy instruction shaped my teaching planning and practice. I'm so glad my study could benefit me as an English language teacher, and my students could be inspired and encouraged by my personal English learning experience that I shared in the classroom teaching.

Moreover, this PhD study is more than a piece of research work. It is a programme of training for me as a researcher. As there is an enormous potential in the research area for independent thought and research on my own, it pushes my mind to create something new that will benefit and possibly make a difference. At the same time, it sharpens my critical thinking and develops the ability to translate complicated ideas and communicate them clearly. More importantly, it enhances my transferable skills that includes problem-solving, thinking in-depth and from different angles and perspectives, which enables me to adapt to the new challenges quickly and obtain the knowledge in other areas.

This research also implicates the importance of the teachers' education and development of LLS in the curriculum. Although language learning strategy shape students' learning behaviours and facilitate their listening comprehension, students get more benefit from LLS when the LLS focus has been integrated into the teachers'' thinking and have a 'sense of plausibility' for teachers, to understanding LLS and LLS focus become routine and automated in normal teaching activities of the teachers. Therefore, the teachers need to be trained to consolidate the new teaching methods. In addition, the innovative approach should involve the innovating activities with teachers rather than for teachers. It suggests researchers

to work in a way of collaborate with the teachers in intervention research design and embedding this in the teaching materials and practice. This will develop our understanding of language learning strategy from the perspectives of the teachers, not just student awareness and attitudes.

Appendix 1. Preliminary classification of learning strategies from O'Malley et al

Generic strategy classification	Representative strategies	Definitions	Relevance to effective listening comprehension
Metacognitive strategies	Selective attention	Focusing on special aspects of learning tasks, as in planning to listen for key words or phrases.	Listeners should pay attention to the details (e.g. time, place) in the listening tasks.
	Monitoring	Reviewing attention to a task, comprehension of information that should be remembered, or production while it is occurring.	Listeners check their understanding through previous knowledge.
	Evaluation	Checking comprehension after completion of a receptive language activity, or evaluating language production after it has taken place.	Listeners try to identify what kind of problems prevent them form being successful listeners.
Cognitive strategies	Rehearsal	Repeating the name of items or objects to be remembered.	Listeners repeat the known knowledge by themselves in order to successfully apply it in listening tasks.
	Organization	Grouping or classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their semantic or syntactic attributes.	Listeners understand what the objectives of listening materials, and the importance of the objectives to attend this massage.
	Inferencing	Using information in text to guess meanings of new linguistic items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts.	Listeners could guess the meaning of unknown words by linking them to the known words.
	Summarizing	Intermittently synthesizing what one has heard to	Listeners write a summary about what they heard.

		ensure the information has been retained.	
	Deducing	Applying the rules to the understanding of language.	Listeners apply skills or rules they have learned in the process of listening.
	Imagery	Using visual images (either generated or actual) to understand and remember new verbal information.	Creating a mental image of information from listening materials. For example, listeners try to remember a set of nouns related to food (e.g. fish, lettuce, potato) by making a visual image of the situation in which he/ she in the kitchen.
	Transfer	Using known linguistic information to facilitate a new learning task.	Listeners employ their knowledge about their first language to comprehend listening materials in English.
	Elaboration	Linking ideas contained in new information, or integrating new ideas with know information.	Listeners set up a brainstorming, try to find out what they know and what they do not know about topics.
Social/ affective strategies	Cooperation	Working with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check notes, or get feedback on a learning activity.	Learners work together to discuss their understanding from listening materials.
	Questioning for clarification	Eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, or examples.	Learners try to find out more information from listening materials by asking questions.
	Self-talk	Using mental redirection of thinking or assure oneself that a learning activity will be successful or to reduce anxiety about a task.	Listeners develop a positive attitude toward listening tasks and encourage themselves.

(Source: O' Malley & Chamot, 1990:46)

Appendix 2. The strategy system of Oxford

Class	Group	Set	Relevance to effective listening comprehension	Examples
Direct Strategies	Memory Strategies	Creating mental linkages	Learners replace new words in the context of the spoken sentence in order to remember some information of listening materials.	Original listening materials shows *Great wall*, listeners could use the acronym GW instead.
		Applying images and sounds	Creating a semantic map, in other words, a diagram that the key concepts are stated and are linked with related concepts through lines.	 Source: Brown-Azarowicz, and Goldin (1986: 32)
		Reviewing well	It is useful to remember listening strategies in the target language.	Listeners learn new listening strategies, after 15 minutes, repeat and practice it again in the listening tasks.
		Employing action	Physically acting out a new expression that has been heard in order to engrave the information in the memory.	Listeners are asked to carry out the instructions that he/ she has heard.
	Cognitive strategies	Practicing	In listening, this strategy is focused on perception of sounds (pronunciation, intonation)	Listeners listen to different words containing the letter *ough: although, through, tough.*

		Reviewing and sending messages	Getting the idea quickly helps listeners skim and scan questions more easily.	Skim questions helps learners understand what is the theme of this listening tasks and to predict possible answers.
		Analyzing and reasoning	Breaking down new word or phrase, or even paragraph into component parts, to comprehend and analyze expressions.	A phrase 'premeditated crime' is hard for listeners to understand, but if listeners break it into phrase that he can understand: crime (bad act), meditate (think about), and pre- (before). The meaning of the whole phrase is: an evil act that is planned in advance.
		Creating structure for input and output	Note- taking while listening is helpful to remember key information of listening materials.	Listeners could take notes to write down the key information while listening.
	Compensation strategies	Guessing intelligently	The requirements of listening tasks or linguistics (e.g. suffixed, prefixes) are the useful clues to help learners comprehend listening materials.	The requirement shows 'fill in the blanks in the following weather report'. It indicates that some words relate to describe whether, e.g. hot, windy.
Indirect strategies	Metacognitive strategies	Centering your learning	Directed and selective attention is helpful for listeners to understand listening materials.	Listeners use directed attention to understand general idea, and selective attention to notice details.
		Arranging and planning your learning	Listeners could identify the purpose of listening tasks in order to channel their energy in the right direction.	Listeners decide to practice listening comprehension skills by watching English movies and listening to popular songs.

		Evaluating your learning	Listeners could check their listening comprehension improvement through self-assessment.	Checklists, diaries or journals help listeners evaluate their listening process.
	Affective strategies	Lowering your anxiety	Reducing anxiety help listeners to be more	Deep breathing brings more calmness before listening in order to concentrate on listening tasks.
		Encouraging yourself	Listeners build up a positive attitude to listening comprehension improvement.	Listeners try to reward when they make process.
		Taking your emotional temperature	Listeners could benefit from discussing the topics with others	Listeners express their feeling about listening practice process and discover what they need to be better learners.
	Social strategies	Asking questions	Asking for verification in the process of listening with the purpose of check listeners' understandings.	Listeners ask questions about the listening materials.
		Cooperating with others	Listeners cooperate with peers and become more proficient listeners.	Listeners work in pairs or groups to discuss and learn form others.
		Empathizing with others	Developing cultural understanding to enhance the background knowledge of foreign language.	Learners listen to BBC to get the culture knowledge.

(Source: Oxford, 1990: 17)

Appendix 3. Booklet of listening strategy instruction

Listening strategies		**Situated-demonstration**	
Definition	**Explanation**	**How to demonstrate**	**Location in course book**
Direct strategies:			
1. Memory straetgies			
1.1Applying images and sounds:			
1.1.1 Semantic mapping:	It can be used for pre-listening activities designed to help learners understand and remember vocabulary that will be heard. It can also be used as the basis for an entire listening activity by giving the main concept or expression and asking students to listen and fill in the rest.	The teacher will use this strategy for the pre-listening activities. She will list and explain some of new or important vocabularies for students before listening. Then, she will read the questions with students and analyzing the information from these clues to help establish a main concept or background information of the task.	Lesson 4: II. Exercises;
2.Cognitive strategies:			
2.1 Practicing			
2.1.1 Repeating: this strategy involves repeatedly listening to native speakers of the new language on a record, with or without silent rehearsal.	Listening to the listening materials several times, and repeating what the speaker said.	The teacher will play the audio sentence by sentence, and then repeat afterwards. And let students know the answers will be found out while repeating. For example, When the teacher repeats '1120 East 32nd Street', which is one of the options in the task, she will find out the answer from one of the options. It is cab's address.	Lesson1: II.Exercises-dialogue1-7
2.1.2 Formally practicing with sounds: in listening, it is focused on perception of sounds (pronunciation and	Imitating the sounds of each word, and try to develop a standard pronunciation.	Teacher will emphasize the importance of standard pronunciation in the listening comprehension, and then read the vocabularies with students after audio. Try to read the	Lesson1-10 I. Vocabulary

intonation) rather than on comprehension of meaning.		words with the standard pronunciation and intonation.	
2.1.3 Recognizing and using formulas and patterns.	Be aware of and/or using routine formulas (such as singular, tense).	A task asks students to fill in the missing words and sentences. For example, the answer should be 'I'm packing. The teacher will remind students of the tense here is present continuous tense, so the routine formulas should be ' be+v-ing'. If the students write ' I packing', it must be the wrong answer.	Lesson 4: Section two: II.Exercise-2; Lesson 3: Section two: II.Exercise-A&B2;
2.2 Reviewing and sending message			
2.2.1 Getting the idea quickly: Two techniques constitute this strategy: skimming and scanning.	Previewing the questions to help learners skim the question. With more proficient learners, fewer clues are given by preview questions.	Firstly, the teacher will skim the question and the options, at the same time, the teacher will read the selected information to demonstrate what kind of information she got. It will let students know what kind of information did the teacher get. Then through the information, the teacher will analyze some of potential topics (fewer clues), and make a guess what is going to talk about. For example, the question is ' the male student doesn't have to take a part-time job because____'. The teacher could get the information ' male student, doesn't, take part-time job'， and then she will guess this dialogue relate to the reasons for not taking a job	Lesson1: Section two: II.Exercise-B1 Lesson2 II.Exercise-B Lesson4 Section two-C1.
2.3 Analyzing and reasoning			
2.3.1 Reasoning deductively: Using and applying general rules to new target language.	It aims to help learners to use general rules or logical thinking to analyze the whether the	A task requires filling in the missing words. ' I think it'll cost about ____or ___ pounds'. The teacher will mention that here is talking about the money, the	Lesson5: Section one: II. Exercise A

	answer is appropriate or not.	missing words should be numbers. So this is a kind of logical hypothesis.	
2.3.2Translating: Converting a target language expression into the native language.	This strategy makes full use of one language as the basis for understanding or producing another.	The teacher will play the audio, and translate English into Chinese sentence by sentence. At the same time, the teacher will explain that the process of translation aims to enhance their understanding of listening materials in native language. Doing the translation while listening is a good way to comprehend the listening materials.	Lesson 6 Section one: II. Exercises B: Dialogue8-14;
2.4 Creating structure for input and output			
2.4.1 Taking notes: Writing down the main idea to specific points while listening.	It allows a mixture of the target language and the learners' own language, with known vocabulary words written in the target language and the rest in the native language.	There are two dictations in every unit. Normally, the teacher will practice the first dictation with students at the same time andordinarily take notes word for word, as in a dictation exercise, taking notes on only the key points of information. After listening, the teacher will share her main points and explain to students why she wrote it down or what kind of skills she used (e.g. abbreviation) to have a comprehensive text, and asked more students to share their notes. And the second dictation will leave students to practice independently.	Lesson2: Section three: D-1; Lesson3: Section three: D-1; Lesson 5: Section three: D-1 Lesson 6： Section three: D-1; Lesson 7: Section three: D-2; Lesson 8: Section three: D-1; Lesson 9: Section three: D-1;
2.4.2 Summarizing: Making a summary of a long passage or a conversation.	It aims to structure new input and show leaners 'understanding through summarizing. It requires	After listening a dialogue, the teacher will write a summary, share with students, and compare her summary with the	Lesson 10: Section two A-1;

	greater condensation of thought.	original text. Let students know it helps to check their understanding about the listening materials.	
2.4.3 Highlighting: it emphasizes the major points in a dramatic what, through color, underlining, capital letters, Initial capitals, big writing, bold writing, circles and so on.	This strategy encourages students to use different emphasis techniques to focus on the important information in a listening task.	For most listening tasks, especially those options are long sentences. The teacher will suggest students to find out the key words and underline, and then pay attention to the important information while listening.	From the beginning od listening training, and continuously to be recommended and demonstrated teachers through the whole training.
3. Compensation strategies			
3.1 Guessing intelligently			
3.1.1 Using other clues: Some clues come from a variety of other sources, which are not related to language.	Any information of a listening task may help listeners to guess what is the listening material going to talk about. For example, background noise of listening materials. An important source of clues to meaning is the text structure-that is, introductions, summarizes, conclusions, titles, translations of dividing the text.	A listening task requires completing the chart by marketing the correct boxes. The teacher will get some of clues through analyzing the information of items and predicting the listening content. For example, in the list of item, it shows: chocolate, pop music, Good coffee, tea, and football game. Also it gives some words of frequency, like sometimes. The information indicates that it may be going to talk about some food and activities, and some of questions relate to the questions of 'how often'.	Lesson 8: Section Two: II.A); Lesson 9: Section two: II.B);
Indirect strategies:			
1. Metacognitive strategies			
1.1 centering your learning			
1.1.1 Overviewing and linking with known material: It involves previewing the basic principles	Connecting the old knowledge with the information of a listening task helps listeners to	A conversation is talking about the food on Christmas. The teacher will firstly share the customs that she knows, like the date of Christmas; turkey is	Lesson 8: II. Exercises;

and /or material for an upcoming language activity, and linking these with what the learners already know.	comprehend listening materials.	necessary for the dishes. Then she will link these to the listening task to comprehend the listening materials.	
1.1.2 Paying attention: It includes directed attention and selective attention. Listeners' attention plays an important role in a listening task. It is necessary for listeners to make full use of the directed and selective attention to focus on the listening tasks.	Directed attention means generally pay attention to the task and avoid irrelevant distractors. Selective attention involves deciding in advance to notice particular details.	A task requires to listening to a paragraph and answer several questions. The teacher will let the students know that attention in such complicated task is more important. The teacher will pay attention to the task and try to avoid distractors. Then She needs to select attention to the key information of each question, and when she listens to the audio, she will especially focus on the related information of questions, and answer the questions.	From the beginning od listening training, and continuously to be recommended and demonstrated teachers through the whole training.
2.1 Arranging and planning your learning			
2.1.1 Finding out about language learning: talk about language learning problems, ask questions, and share ideas with each other about the effective strategies they have tried.	Exchange the idea of listening experience to share the effective strategies with other listeners. Listeners learn from each other should also be encouraged.	The teacher will ask a teaching assistant to do a listening task together. Then they will exchange their answers and share thoughts after listening.	Lesson 2: II. Exercises: Dialogue1-4
2.1.2 Organizing: assist students in developing practical weekly schedules for language learning, with plenty of time devoted to outside-of –class practice in the language skills which are most needed.	The teachers should encourage listening practice after class. After all, the time of practicing in the class is limited. Giving some new listening tasks for students to practice and mastering listening strategies.	For this strategy, the real experience and true stories form the teachers must be the best examples to inspire students. The teacher will tell any of experiences they have or what was successful for her to achieve a high proficiency level of listening. Of course, it includes after school practicing, etc.	The teacher will leave some time after training, and communicate with students listening practice plans.

2.1.3 Identifying the purpose of a language task	Making sure the purpose of listening tasks helps listeners to focus on the key information of the materials and answer questions more effectively.	The teacher will read the listening requirements in front of the class, and explain that which type of task it is. For example, *True or False Questions*. After listening, listeners should judge each statement whether it is correct or not. Let students understand the purpose of a task and know what should they do while listening.	Lesson 7: Section two: II. Exercises B);
2.1.4 Planning for a language task: it involves identifying the general nature of the task, the specific requirements of the task, the recourses available within the learner, and the need for further aids.	It is necessary for listeners to be clear about the requirements and question settings before listening. Listeners could have a good plan in terms of answering listening tasks.	In order to have an overview of the task, the teacher will read the task's requirements, questions at the beginning, and identify the recourses available for her. Then she will make a plan and decide what she needs to focus while listening.	Lesson 3: Section two: II. Exercises B);
3.1 Evaluating your learning			
3.1.1 Self-Monitoring: write down the most significant difficulties in language learning notebooks and try to eliminate them.	Self-evaluating is an essential process for listeners to think back. Only realize the listening difficulties, can the listeners find out more solutions to overcome these obstacles.	The teacher will listen and complete a task at the beginning, then write down what does she think is the most difficult in this task, and how to solve the difficulties. She will share her self-monitoring note with students in the class.	Lesson5: Section two: II. Exercises C);
2. Affective strategies			
2.1 Lowing your anxiety			
2.1.1 Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation	Often the listeners easily become nervous when they are taking listening tests. Try to reduce such nervous could help concentrate on the listening tasks.	The teacher will share how to relax herself before listening test. For example, deep breathing, listen to music. And the teacher will encourage students to relax themselves at the beginning of each class.	Lesson1-10

2.2 Encouraging yourself	Constantly encourage yourself to practice listening and challenge some difficult listening tasks could enhance listeners' confidence of listening comprehensive.	The teacher will show some of methods to do the self-encouragement. For example, be confidence challenge a difficult listening task, rewarding herself when she did good job on listening.	Lesson 5: Section two: II. Exercises: A)
3. Social strategies			
3.1 Asking questions			
3.1.1 Asking for clarification or verification: asking questions: ask the speaker to repeat, paraphrase, explain, slowdown, or give examples	Some of listening materials are may difficult for listeners. So repeat the audio or slowdown the speaking speed for listeners to clarify the questions.	The teacher will play the audio and listen to the materials. After listening, the teacher will share her questions with students in terms of listening content. Then she will repeat to play the audio to do the clarification.	Lesson 2: Section two: II. Exercises: A);
3.2 Cooperating with others			
3.2.1 Cooperating with peers	Working with partners, discussing and finding out the answers will devote to efficient learning.	The teacher will cooperate with a teaching assistant to complete a listening task together. After listening, they will exchange their idea and discuss in terms of the different results. Then students will cooperate with peers to complete the listening task, and share the answers in the class.	Lesson 1: Section one: II. Exercises: A), B);
3.3 Empathizing with others			
3.3.1 Developing culture understanding	The diversity of culture is one of the important factors that may influence the understandings.	The teacher will introduce and explain some of culture notes in the class. Meanwhile, the teacher will encourage students to learn more western culture after class. For example, continental breakfast, lifestyle.	Lesson 10: Section one: II. Culture notes.

Appendix 4. Questionnaire (English version)

Please write your reference number in this research: _____

This questionnaire is to collect your opinion on the listening training sessions.

Put a tick in the box, according to the following scale.

1. Never or almost never true of me

2. Usually not true of me

3. Somewhat true of me

4. Usually true of me

5. Always or most always true of me

		Never true				True
A. Perceived value of listening comprehension training		1	2	3	4	5
1.	It is useful to have listening comprehension training.					
2.	I think the listening training sessions could develop my practicing interests of listening skills.					
3.	Listening training sessions enable me to reflect on my learning.					
4.	Listening strategy instruction could be helpful to my listening comprehension development.					
5.	I like to attend listening comprehension training every week.					
6.	Using listening comprehension skills would be helpful for listening comprehension.					
7.	Learning how I use listening strategy in the classroom could be useful.					
8.	Classroom based listening comprehension training could benefit me a lot.					
9.	I have higher expectation on listening comprehension training.					
10.	I would like to consistently receive listening comprehension training if it is possible.					
B. Listening strategies use						
1.	Before I start to listen, I try to think of questions that are going to be asked.					
2.	Before listening, I think of similar texts that I may have listened to.					
3.	I try to give full attention to the listening task and ignore irrelevant distracters.					
4.	When listening, I know how well a strategy is working.					
5.	After listening, I think about how well I did on the task.					
6.	After listening I identify the central aspects of the task that hindered its successful completion.					

7	While listening, I try to use my previous knowledge to comprehend what I hear.					
8	While listening, I try to use the general idea of the text to help me guess the meaning of the words that I don't understand.					
9	While listening, I visualize (picture in my mind) what I hear.					
10	While listening, I use linguistic concepts from my language to help me to understand linguistic concepts in English.					
11	While listening, I try to connect what I hear with information I gained from experiences in the world.					
12	I note down key words and concepts while listening.					
13	After listening, I make a summary of the information I heard.					
14	When listening, I would like to repeat the words or phrases again and again in English.					
15	When listening, I try to translate from English to Chinese.					
16	When listening, I try to group the words that sound the same.					
17	When listening, I use my knowledge of Chinese to understand better.					
18	If I do not understand something in listening, I ask the other person to explain.					
19	When listening, I use sentence syntax (the grammatical structure) to comprehend the message.					
20	As I listen I quickly adjust my interpretation is I realize that it is not correct.					
21	After listening, I make summaries of information that I hear in English.					
22	When listening, I try to understand the meaning of key words.					
23	If I do not understand something when listening, I keep on listening for clarification later on.					
24	If I do not understand something when listening, I lose my immediate train of concentration, but try to recover it right away.					
25	When I listen to a text, I focus on the words as well as the intonation and stress that the speaker uses.					
26	While I am listening to a text, I consciously keep in mind that information that I need to listen for.					
27	I use the speaker's tone of voice to guess the meaning of unknown words in a text.					
28	When I work together with other students, it helps me to successfully complete a task.					
29	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in listening.					
30	When listening, I constantly encourage myself.					
C. Source of self-efficacy information						
1.	Among my friends I am usually the one who figures out English questions (e.g., like being able to understand a specific listening text in a group work, or being able to understand a English speaker outside of classroom).					
2.	I am confident with my English listening abilities.					

3.	I would like to improve my English listening skills through continuously practice.					
4.	I am afraid of doing English listening comprehension exercises when I know it will be graded.					
5.	I believe the English listening sessions are able to help me improve my listening abilities.					
6.	Many of the adults I know are in occupations that require good English listening skill.					
7.	I was often encouraged by my teacher is to join clubs which required English listening related ability (i.e., English conversation/speech club…etc.)					
8.	I would like to try to challenge difficult English listening tasks.					
9.	I receive good grades in English listening tests.					
10	I think English listening skills are the important part of learning, as well as the elementary skills in the career.					
11	Although I am being poor at English listening, I am still persistently practicing my listening comprehension skills.					
12	I get really uptight while taking English listening comprehension exams.					
13	I am rarely able to help my classmate was difficult English listening tasks.					
14	I believe I could receive good grades in English listening tests.					
15	I can listen to and understand the whole text without difficulty.					
16	I have always had a natural talent for English listening skill.					
17	Because it is difficult to improve English listening skills, I don't like to practice listening.					
18	Classroom-based listening training could improve my learning desires.					
19	I like to practice listening because of my interests.					
20	I would like to listen to some of difficult listening materials for practicing.					

Appendix 5 Questionnaire (Chinese version)

请将你的序号写在这：

这份问卷用于收集你对听力训练的看法。请从下列选项中选出代表你认为对该问题最恰当的描述：

1. **完全或从来没有**
2. **一般情况不是**这样
3. **有**时候是这样
4. **通常是**这样
5. 经常或大部分情况是这样

A. 对听力理解训练的认知		1	2	3	4	5
1.	进行听力训练是有用的。					
2.	**我**认为课堂英语听力训练使我开始喜欢练习英语听力练习。					
3.	**听力**课程能够对我的学习有帮助.					
4.	**听力策略的指**导能有助于我对听力材料的理解。					
5.	**我喜**欢每周都上听力课。					
6.	**听力技巧的学**习有助于听力理解。					
7.	**我**认为学习在课堂上如何学习使用听力策略很有用。					
8.	课堂听力训练会让我受益匪浅。					
9.	**我**对听力训练有很高的期待。					
10.	**有可能的**话，**我愿意不**间断地接受听力训练。					
B.**听力策略使用**						
1.	**在播放听力材料之前**，**我会**试着猜想被问到哪些问题。					
2.	**在做听力**练习之前，**我会回**忆之前听过相似的内容的听力材料。					
3.	**我会集中精力回答听力**问题，**尽量忽略外界的干**扰。					
4.	**在做听力**练习的过程中，**我清楚地知道如何运用每一个听力策略**。					

5.	**在听力**练习完成之后，**我会**评价一下自己完成的怎么样。					
6.	**在听力**结束之后，**我会找出自己**认为整套题中最难听懂的得地方进行总结。					
7	**在做听力**练习的过程中，**我会**尝试用原来已有的知识来理解我所听到的信息。					
8	**在做听力**练习的过程中，**我会**尝试通过理解整篇听力材料大意的来猜一些我不认识单词的意思。					
9	**在做听力**练习的过程中，**我会在**脑海中想象出所听到的内容。					
10	**在做听力**练习的过程中，**我会用自己的英**语语言学知识（**如**词缀）**帮助自己理解英**语当中的一些语言现象。					
11	**在做听力**练习的过程中，**我会**试着把所听到的信息和我从生活经验中得到的信息联系起来。					
12	**在做听力**练习的过程中，**我会写下一些关**键词和概念。					
13	**在听力**结束后，**我会将所听到的信息**总结出来。					
14	**在听的**过程中，**我喜**欢用英语把听到的其中一些单词和短语不断重复。					
15	**在做听力**练习的过程中，**我会**尝试通过将听到的英语材料翻译成汉语后进行理解。					
16	**在做听力**练习的过程中，**我会**尝试把发音相近的几个单词列出来，**并从中**进行选择最恰当的词语。					
17	**在做听力**练习的过程中，**我会用母**语文化中的常识来帮助我理解听力材料。					
18	**当我无法理解听力材料中的某些内容**时，**我会**请求别人帮忙解释说明。					
19	**在做听力**练习的过程中，**我会用**语法知识（语法结构）**来理解信息**。					
20	**当我在听听力材料的**过程中，发现自己的理解有误时，**我会及**时作出调整。					
21	**听力**结束后，**我会将我所听到的主要内容用英**语总结并写出来。					
22	**在做听力**练习的过程中，**我会**尝试去理解听力材料中关键词的意思。					

Appendix 5

23	如果在听力练习的过程中，遇到有听不懂得地方时，我会坚持集中注意力听下去直到明白听力材料的大意。					
24	如果我听不懂的话，我会容易走神，但很快强迫自己集中注意力仔细听。					
25	当我听一篇文章时，我把注意力放在说话者的用词，及其所使用的语调和重音上。					
26	当我在听一篇文章时，我有意识地会将所需要的信息记在脑子里。					
27	我会通过说话人的语调来猜测生词的意思					
28	当我和其他同伴一起做听力练习时，我可以有效地完成听力任务。					
29	当我的听力任务完成的非常好时，我会给自己奖励。					
30	在做听力练习的过程中，遇到困难时，我会不断地鼓励自己。					
C. 英语学习能力和动机的自我评价						
1.	在一群朋友或同学当中，我是那个能解答英语听力方面问题的人（ 例如：在英语听力课的小组讨论时， 我是那个能听懂、或为同组同学解答某段英文内容的人）。					
2.	我对自己的英语听力能力有信心。					
3.	我很愿意通过不断地做听力练习，来提高自己的英语听力水平。					
4.	当我知道所做的英语听力练习需要被评分的时候，我会感到害怕。					
5.	我认为英语听力课的训练，能够帮助我提高英语听力。					
6.	在很多我认识的成年人中（例如：朋友、家人），良好的英文听力水平对他们的工作而言是必备的条件。					
7.	我的老师经常会鼓励我参加一些与英语听力有关的课外活动（比如：英文会话或演讲等）。					
8.	我会避免做听力练习.					

9.	**我的英**语听力能测试成绩很好					
10	**我**觉得英语听力是英语学习的重要部分，**也是**职场人士必备的英语技能。					
11	**尽管我**觉得自己是个的英语听力能力不佳的学生， **但是我仍然**坚持练习听力。					
12	**当我参加英**语听力测试时，**我会非常**紧张。					
13	**我很少帮助同学**们解答英语听力方面的问题。					
14	**我相信自己在英**语听力测试中会取得非常好的成绩.					
15	**我可以无障碍听懂和理解整个听力材料**。					
16	**我在英**语听力方面很有天赋。					
17	**我不愿意**练习听力，**是因**为我觉得提高听力水平是很困难的事。					
18	课堂听力训练提高了我的英语学习兴趣。					
19	**我是因**为喜欢英语而愿意练习英语听力。					
20	**我喜**欢挑战自己，**平**时会听一些比较有难度的听力材料练习听力。					

Appendix 6. Interview for students (English version)

1. What is your general impression of the listening training class? Do you expect to attend in listening class every week?

2. What do you think about the teaching methods of listening?

3. What have you learned from listening class?

4. To what extent do you believe the classroom-based training is more effective?

5.Do the listening classes achieve your needs on English listening comprehension improvement? Why or why not?

6. Do you clearly know the teacher delivered listening strategies in the class? How did /did not you know this?

7. What do you think of these strategies?

8. In what ways do you think a situated-demonstration strategy instruction (EG)/ listening class (CG) could change your self-efficacy (motivation, attitude, beliefs) for listening comprehension?

9.Are there any strategies when you use/ learn in the class leave you a deep impression? Why?

10. Will you use the knowledge and listening strategies you learned in the future study and practice?

11. What kinds of English learning belief, motivation, attitude do you have before/ after the training courses?

12. Comparing with the beginning of this semester, how do you look at your listening comprehension ability?

13.Did you use any listening strategies in the listening test?

14. How did you write your verbal reports when you take listening tasks?

15. (After telling students their scores in two tests), is this the same result as you expect? Why?

16. What kind of reasons do you think contribute to the results?

17. Is there any practice plan for listening in the future?

Appendix 7. Interview for students (Chinese version)

1. 总的来说，你如何评价这学期的听力课？你期待每周的听力课吗？
2. 你觉得老师上课的听力教学方法怎么样？(老师是怎么教的？)
3. 你从听力这门课上有哪些收获呢？
4. 你觉得课堂训练对你的听力水平有多么大的影响？
5. 你觉得课堂的听力训练可以满足你提高英语听力的需求吗？为什么？
6. 你很清楚的知道老师在课堂上有教大家如何使用听力策略吗？你是如何知道的？
7. 你如何评价听力策略？
8. 你认为情景展示型的听力策略教学/听力课堂教学会在多大程度上影响你对听力的态度，想法和自信心的发展？
9. 在你学习和使用听力策略的时候，有没有什么听力策略和方法给你留下比较深刻的印象？
10. 在未来的学习中你会使用这学期学到的听力方发和技巧吗？为什么？举个例子
11. 在听力训练之前/之后,你对听力的看法是什么？
12. 与学期初相比，你对自己听力水平的是越来越有信心了还是比较失望？
13. 你在做听力测试的时候有使用听力策略吗？有哪些？
14. 你是如何在听力测试中反馈听力过程的？
15. （在告诉学生他们的两次听力成绩后）,这跟你们预期的结果一样吗？为什么？
16. 你认为是什么原因产生这样的结果？
17. 在未来的学习中，你有什么听力训练的计划和方法吗？

Appendix 8. Interview for Teachers (English version)

1. What is your general impression of the listening class?

2. How do you know your students' needs on listening class?

3. What do you expect for your students to get from this class?

4.What the most popular listening strategies/listening methods do you like to use or encourage students to use while teaching? Why?

5.To what extent do you believe the classroom-based training is more effective?

6. Comparing with the beginning of the semester, do you think the students have some changes from their study to self-efficacy?

7. How do you comment your students' performances in the whole semester?

8. (After telling teachers their students' scores in two tests), is this the same result as you expect? Why?

9. What kind of reasons do you think contribute to such results?

10. Do you have any new plans or ideas for future teaching?

Appendix 9. Interview for Teachers (Chinese version)

1. 总的来说，你如何评价这学期的听力课？

2. 你是如何知道你学生在听力方面的听力需求呢？

3. 你期待自己的学生在听力课上可以学到什么？

4. 你最常用的听力教学方法是什么或者说你最鼓励学生如何进行听力训练？为什么？

5. 在多大程度上你相信课堂听力教学是比较有用的？

6. 和开学初相比，你认为学生对于听力训练的态度和信心有什么变化吗？或者说你是如何感觉到学生听力学习的变化的？

7. 你如何评价学生这一学期在听力课的表现？

8.（在告诉老师他们的学生的两次听力成绩后），这跟你们预期的结果一样吗？为什么？

9. 你认为是什么原因产生这样的结果？

10. 在未来的教学中，你有什么心得听力训练的计划和方法吗？

Appendix 10. The example of verbal reports

No.	Answers	Verbal reports	Paraphrase or the translations of reports
1	B	看清题干，听 but, now 等词	Listen to the key words;
2	B	听清人物与关键词	Listening and trying to find the relationship between people, and the key words;
3	C	重点听他未做的事	Focus on the things the dialogues mentioned
4	A	排除法	Avoid incorrect answers by background knowledge
5	C	分析女人话语中的意思	Comprehend the meaning of dialogues
6	B	通过语气与说话的内容	Comprehend the meaning by judging the intonations of people;
7	A	分析语意	Based on the situations of dialogues to comprehend the meaning;
8	C	由语句可知，他点了早餐饼打电话 3 次催促后在半小时内仍未看到早餐	I understand the meaning of conversations to choose answer;
9	A	女人对他的称呼是 manager	Because the women called him manager, very direct answer
10	C	女人对经理提出不满表明她对服务感到失望	I comprehend the meaning that the women is not satisfied with the manager by listening to the keywords
11	A	男人说'I know you work in a hospital'	I understand what did the men say
12	B	女人 prepare medicine, 而不 produce， 未提及 do experiments	I head the key words to choose the answer.

13	C	Doctor said' he can't do so much work without the woman'	I head this sentence 'he can't do so much work without the woman' that help me to choose answer.
14	B	Man 问女人你这个假期准备去哪	Comprehend meaning directly
15	A	女人说她一直在看天气预报	Comprehend the whole dialogue to guess the topic and make chose
16	B	他说自己过 storm 发生的场景，不确定是 A 还是 B	I heard the man mentioned about storm, but still not sure the answer is A or B.
17	A	文章开头自述中他讲了自己十年前的工作	I heard the man said about the his job experience
18	A	她回想起曾经做着自己所热爱的事情	I tried to comprehend the meaning of the dialogue through the whole context.
19	B	他感觉自己当时在做的工作不是自己真正热爱的	I tried to comprehend the meaning of the dialogue through the whole context.
20	**C**	**他庆幸自己做了这个决定**	I tried to comprehend the meaning of the dialogue through the whole context.

Appendix 11. The example of transcription of interviews

EZ1-17:

Q: 你如何评价这学期的听力课？

A:听力课上就是老师提问的时候感觉很紧张，大部分都听不太懂。老师上课用听力策略，感觉有点帮助。现在虽然听力很差很差，但是比以前稍微好点。因为高考不考听力，所以以前基本没听过。

Q: 你现在期待上听力课吗？

A:因为要四级考试，就想着还是尽量上的的时候学一点。

Q:你觉得老师的课程讲得怎么样？

A: 我属于程度比较差的，所以感觉老师说的有些快，稍微跟不上老师的节凑。

Q:你认为老师讲的方法什么你都接受吗？

A:对我来说，还行，但是自己觉得还是一般。

Q:这一学期下来你学到了些什么？

A: 如何运用听力策略，比如先读题，找关键词，有一个大概的想法文章讲什么。

Q:还有其他别的吗？

A: 关键词，比如时间地点人物

Q:你觉得课堂训练对你听力水平有帮助吗？

A:我觉得课堂上的帮助很有限，闲下来要是多加练习应该会好很多。

Q:你下来有练习吗？

A: 没有，因为感觉没有听力练习材料，学习材料不够多，才没有练习。自己也比较懒，不愿意多听。

Q: 你害怕做听力吗？

A:特别害怕

Q:课堂听力训练能满足你提高听力的需求吗？

A:不能，太少太单调了

Q:你上课的时候知道，老师给大家再叫听力策略吗/

A: 老师会展示如何用听力策略，听的时候感觉是有用，但自己很少用

Q: 你觉得听力策略的优点在哪？

A: 很有效的帮我找到听力问题的关键点，重复啊，预测问题啊

Q:这些方法有对你印象深刻吗？

A: 对，就是这些

Q:你有探索什么新的听力方法吗？

A:没有，我就是用我现有的，老师教的这些。

Q:这学期开学时你想象的听力课是什么样的？

A: 就觉得上课就是听，不会那么紧张，不会回答问题。

Q:开学时你如何觉得听力？

A: 挺难得，因为我们上大学前都不练听力，所以挺值钱很紧张。

Q:经过了一学期，你还紧张吗？

A: 不紧张了，就是听不懂但也还是尽量认真听下去。以前听到有些单词很熟悉但是就不知道什么意思，没有反应。现在稍微好点了

Q: 与开学之初相比，你对听力的信心成都有什么变化吗？

A: 现在有一点信心了。以前连数字什么基本都不会写，现在听得越来越多，感觉稍微熟练一点

Q:你当时是什么状态做的后侧？

A:不紧张了，第一次拼命地读题，但还是什么都不知道。

Q:你当时的 note 怎么做的？

A:我刚开始忘了做笔记，后来看了卷子上有问题，就把关键词抄了抄。

Q:第一次你做对了 3 个，第二次 8 个，这和你预想的结果一样吗？

A:不是太满意。有得听不懂的，好多都是猜的。刚开学的时候，特别紧张，这次比较放松。听力一学期，或多或少有点进步。

Q:有什么新的听力学习计划吗？

A; 想在假期多练习一些最基本的，用老师这学期教的，精听，纠正一些自己的发音，因为自己的发音问题，甚至有些特别简单的单词，因为发音问题，写不出来，所以发音挺重要的。

Appendix 12 The example of field notes

Red stands for class 2, black stands for class3, green stands for class1

Lesson 6

23rd November

1. The teacher read the vocabularies first to help students correct their pronunciation.

2. The teacher played the audio for 3 times, then she asked students to exchange their answer with others. She invited the students to tell their final results, the students who were asked can largely give the right answer in the task of filling the missing words.

3. When listening to a conversation, some of students were laughing because of the funny listening materials. This means they quite understand the content.

4. After listening, the teacher asked students to repeat and translate the content they heard. It is a bit difficult for students to get the information well. Later the teacher encouraged students to guess the general meaning of the sentence by analyzing some clues of the task, like the meaning of sentences related to the answers. 'be engaged' in this conversation means busy with, so the teacher analyzed this sentences that mean the telephone is always busy. That's why choose the answer 'cant get through the telephone'.

5. The students in the task of dictation that was a bit hard for them. They were not sure about their answers when they are asked, and they were not able to repeat the original sentences completely.

6. When comes to the questions like ' why I want to leave my present job', ' the present job' is read as liaison, the students started to be confused. Now they are familiar with the sentence structures and could repeat the short sentences clearly, but for the liaison, contraction may be difficult for listeners.

25th November

1. At the every beginning of the class, the teacher corrected the pronunciation of students first.
2. The teacher played audio three times, and then asked students to exchange their ideas, when the teacher checked their answers, the students seemed a bit nervous.
3. One of the sentences ‘ that number being engaged for ages, nobody can be that popular‘, students said it was difficult to understand, the teacher started the analyze the background of conversation, which took place in a telephone conversation, so it meant the telephone is always busy,
4. ‘I wonder if her number has been changed’, there is a contraction, the teacher encouraged students to use the formulas when repeating, because most of they can hear’ her number been changed’, the pattern should ‘ have/has+P.P’, so the students finally wrote a correct sentence.
5. For the difficult task, the students asked to repeat and translate sentence-by-sentence, 90% students could completely repeat it and translate. I think it may because the teacher made some pauses that separate a sentence into small parts to follow easily.
6. For the dictation, the number of correction sentences writing was increasing, could see more students shown their satisfied with their listening comprehension from their facial expressions and interaction with teacher.

1. The teacher asked students to read the questions and make sure the purpose of each question. Some of students shared their understanding about the tasks with other students. Based on some clues, the students made a good guess about the general idea.
2. When the students met the new words, which had been studied at the beginning, they still cannot immediately recognize the meaning of the words and transfer it into Chinese.
3. After the discussion, the students exchanged their answers by collaborating with peers.

Appendix 13 The example of listening comprehension exam

1. Who is paying the lunch now?

[A] They share the bill.

[B] The woman.

[C] The man.

2. Who are the two speakers?

[A] Workers.

[B] Students.

[C] Teachers.

3. What will the speakers do over the weekend?

[A] Go camping.

[B] Stay at home.

[C] Climb mountains.

4. Where are the speakers?

[A] In a bookstore.

[B] On a bus.

[C] At home.

5. What does the man ask the woman to do?

[A] Get his key.

[B] Start the car.

[C] Wait for him.

第二节 听下面5段对话或独白，每段对话或独白后有几个小题，从题中所给的A、B、C三个选项中选出最佳选项，并标在试卷的相应位置。听每段对话或独白前，你将有5秒钟的时间阅读各个小题，每小题将给出5秒钟的作答时间，每段对话或独白读两遍。

听下面一段对话，回答第6至第7题。

6. Why does the woman call the man?

[A] To tell him the time and place of a meeting.

[B] To tell him how to get to Birmingham.
[C] To tell him to visit Don White.

7. Which train is the woman taking?
[A] The 10:17. [B] The 10:45. [C] The 11:15.

听下面一段对话，回答第 8 至第 10 题。

8. When is their flight?
[A] In the morning.
[B] In the afternoon.
[C] In the evening.

9. Why do the speakers need to stop off in Hong Kong?
[A] Direct flights are more expensive.
[B] They plan to do some shopping there.
[C] There are no non-stop flights to Singapore.

10. How long will the speakers be away from home?
[A] Two days. [B] Ten days. [C] Twelve days.

听下面一段对话，回答第 11 至第 13 题。

11. Where does this conversation take place?
[A] In a concert hall.
[B] In a restaurant.
[C] In a theatre.

12. How does the woman feel in the conversation?
[A] Unhappy. [B] Curious. [C] Excited.

13. What is the woman going to do next?
[A] Start to work immediately.
[B] Talk to the group.
[C] Sit down to order.

听下面一段对话，回答第 14 至第 17 题。

14. Why was Bill unhappy about the game?
[A] Some players played poorly.
[B] The scores were too close.
[C] It lasted too long.

15. Who cheered for the Tigers?
[A] Steve. [B] Bill. [C] Eric.

16. What was the one thing Bill said he enjoyed?
[A] His friends' company.
[B] Supporting his team.
[C] Eating some food.

17. What do you know about the woman?

[A] She knows Bill well.

[B] She owns a restaurant.

[C] She dislikes football.

听下面一段独白，回答第 18 至第 20 题。

18. What do we know about Cactus City Wild West Park?

[A] A place to see cowboys and cowgirls.

[B] A place for children to play in winter.

[C] A fun place for the whole family.

19. When does the wild west show begin?

[A] At 10 a. m. weekdays.

[B] At 2 p. m. on weekend.

[C] At 2:30 p. m. every day.

20. When can people take free buses to the park?

[A] On Saturdays and Sundays.

[B] Throughout the week.

[C] In the evenings.

Appendix 14 The example of lesson plan in the experimental group

Lecturer A	Date: 14/17/2015
Course: listening comprehension training	Duration: 2hours

Time	Listening strategies (5 in total)	Teacher activity	Student activity	Resource
10:00	Practicing with sounds: in listening, it is focused on perception of sounds (pronunciation and intonation) rather than on comprehension of meaning.	Teacher will emphasize the importance of standard pronunciation in the listening comprehension, and then read the vocabularies with students after audio.	Read aloud after the audio	Lesson1: I Vocabulary
10:15	Repeating: this strategy involves repeatedly listening to native speakers of the new language on a record, with or without silent rehearsal.	The teacher will play the audio sentence by sentence then repeat afterwards. When the teacher repeats '1120 East 32nd Street', which is one of the options in the task, she will find out the answer from one of the options. It is cab's address.	Apply the strategy of repeating: listen and repeat the listening materials, then complete the exercises.	Lesson1: II. Exercises-dialogue1-7
10:40	Getting the idea quickly: Two techniques constitute this strategy: skimming and scanning.	Firstly, the teacher will skim the question and the options, at the same time, the teacher will read the selected information to demonstrate what kind of information she got. It will let students know what kind of information the teacher get. Then through the information, the teacher will analyze some of potential topics (fewer clues), make a guess what is going to talk about. For example, the question is 'the male student doesn't have to take a part-time job because____'. The teacher could get the information 'male student, doesn't, take part-time job'， and then she will guess this dialogue relate to the reasons for not taking a job	Follow the same process to complete the listening exercises.	Lesson1: Section II : Exercise-B1
11:10	Cooperating with peers	The teacher will cooperate with the researcher to complete a listening task together. After listening, they will exchange their idea and discuss in terms of the different results.	Students will cooperate with peers to complete the listening tasks, and share the	Lesson 1: Section one:

Appendix 14

			answers in the class.	II. Exercises: A), B);
11:40	Organizing: assist students in developing practical weekly schedules for language learning, with plenty of time devoted to outside-of –class practice in the language skills which are most needed.	For this strategy, the real learning experience and true stories of the teacher would be the best examples to inspire students.	Being encouraged to have a discussion with the teacher.	

Appendix 15. The descriptive statistics of each item of the questionnaire

Please write your reference number in this research: _____

This questionnaire is to collect your opinion on the listening training sessions.

Put a tick in the box, according to the following scale.

1. Never or almost never true of me

2. Usually not true of me

3. Somewhat true of me

4. Usually true of me

5. Always or most always true of me

A. Perceived value of listening comprehension training		EG-pre					EG-post					CG-pre					CG-post				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1.	It is useful to have listening comprehension training.	4.1%	0.0%	5.4%	36.5%	54.1%	1.4%	0.0%	4.1%	21.6%	73.0%	1.4%	5.6%	13.9%	26.4%	52.8%	4.2%	0.0%	12.5%	36.1%	47.2%

2.	I think the listening training sessions could develop my practicing interests of listening skills.	10.8%	12.2%	17.6%	21.6%	37.8%	1.4%	2.7%	16.2%	36.5%	43.2%	5.6%	9.7%	38.9%	25.0%	20.8%	4.2%	8.3%	27.8%	44.4%	15.3%
3.	Listening training sessions enable me to reflect on my learning.	6.8%	1.4%	6.8%	25.7%	59.5%	0.0%	0.0%	4.1%	23.0%	73.0%	4.2%	5.6%	8.3%	27.8%	54.2%	5.6%	4.2%	15.3%	33.3%	41.7%
4.	Listening strategy instruction could be helpful to my listening comprehension development.	2.7%	4.1%	13.5%	37.8%	41.9%	0.0%	1.4%	4.1%	35.1%	59.5%	0.0%	8.3%	18.1%	29.2%	44.4%	1.4%	4.2%	18.1%	43.1%	33.3%
5.	I like to attend listening comprehension training every week.	6.8%	16.2%	31.1%	20.3%	25.7%	1.4%	8.1%	23.0%	33.8%	33.8%	12.5%	23.6%	36.1%	12.5%	15.3%	9.7%	22.2%	30.6%	29.2%	8.3%
6.	Using listening comprehension skills would be helpful for listening comprehension.	6.8%	9.5%	33.8%	28.4%	21.6%	1.4%	4.1%	25.7%	41.9%	27.0%	11.1%	23.6%	23.6%	33.3%	8.3%	6.9%	11.1%	38.9%	26.4%	16.7%
7.	Learning how I use listening strategy in the classroom could be useful.	9.5%	6.8%	16.2%	21.6%	45.9%	1.4%	5.4%	14.9%	35.1%	43.2%	8.3%	9.7%	25.0%	25.0%	31.9%	5.6%	8.3%	20.8%	38.9%	26.4%
8.	Classroom based listening comprehension training could benefit me a lot.	10.8%	12.2%	29.7%	28.4%	18.9%	0.0%	5.4%	27.0%	33.8%	33.8%	13.9%	19.4%	38.9%	22.2%	5.6%	4.2%	12.5%	45.8%	30.6%	6.9%
9.	I have higher expectation on listening comprehension training.	1.4%	13.5%	13.5%	31.1%	40.5%	1.4%	4.1%	24.3%	31.1%	39.2%	13.9%	34.7%	18.1%	20.8%	12.5%	12.5%	13.9%	23.6%	30.6%	19.4%
10.	I would like to consistently receive listening comprehension training if it is possible.	0.0%	1.4%	5.4%	25.7%	67.6%	0.0%	1.4%	2.7%	29.7%	66.2%	2.8%	2.8%	8.3%	38.9%	47.2%	1.4%	4.2%	20.8%	38.9%	34.7%
B. Listening strategies use																					
1.	Before I start to listen, I try to think of questions that are going to be asked.	16.2%	8.1%	39.2%	14.9%	21.6%	1.4%	8.1%	24.3%	31.1%	35.1%	19.4%	12.5%	16.7%	20.8%	30.6%	8.3%	9.7%	45.8%	18.1%	18.1%

2.	Before listening, I think of similar texts that I may have listened to.	39.2%	29.7%	17.6%	6.8%	6.8%	14.9%	29.7%	29.7%	12.2%	13.5%	54.2%	25.0%	15.3%	1.4%	4.2%	16.7%	36.1%	27.8%	12.5%	6.9%
3.	I try to give full attention to the listening task and ignore irrelevant distracters.	2.7%	0.0%	20.3%	31.1%	45.9%	0.0%	1.4%	13.5%	37.8%	47.3%	1.4%	2.8%	13.9%	44.4%	37.5%	0.0%	6.9%	25.0%	41.7%	26.4%
4.	When listening, I know how well a strategy is working.	17.6%	29.7%	41.9%	10.8%	0.0%	2.7%	13.5%	54.1%	29.7%	0.0%	20.8%	33.3%	34.7%	9.7%	1.4%	9.7%	33.3%	48.6%	8.3%	0.0%
5.	After listening, I think about how well I did on the task.	9.5%	21.6%	29.7%	20.3%	18.9%	2.7%	8.1%	37.8%	21.6%	29.7%	20.8%	22.2%	22.2%	18.1%	16.7%	4.2%	18.1%	38.9%	20.8%	18.1%
6.	After listening I identify the central aspects of the task that hindered its successful completion.	28.4%	31.1%	27.0%	10.8%	2.7%	6.8%	25.7%	45.9%	12.2%	9.5%	43.1%	27.8%	18.1%	6.9%	4.2%	11.1%	36.1%	36.1%	11.1%	5.6%
7	While listening, I try to use my previous knowledge to comprehend what I hear.	9.5%	9.5%	23.0%	33.8%	24.3%	1.4%	5.4%	21.6%	37.8%	33.8%	4.2%	20.8%	23.6%	23.6%	27.8%	2.8%	15.3%	25.0%	44.4%	12.5%
8	While listening, I try to use the general idea of the text to help me guess the meaning of the words that I don't understand.	12.2%	13.5%	25.7%	23.0%	25.7%	1.4%	9.5%	21.6%	36.5%	31.1%	18.1%	8.3%	27.8%	26.4%	19.4%	6.9%	16.7%	37.5%	25.0%	13.9%
9	While listening, I visualize (picture in my mind) what I hear.	5.4%	13.5%	33.8%	18.9%	28.4%	2.7%	4.1%	20.3%	40.5%	32.4%	13.9%	15.3%	34.7%	18.1%	18.1%	1.4%	19.4%	26.4%	37.5%	15.3%
10	While listening, I use linguistic concepts from my language to help me to understand linguistic concepts in English.	18.9%	27.0%	24.3%	17.6%	12.2%	4.1%	14.9%	39.2%	31.1%	10.8%	55.6%	18.1%	13.9%	11.1%	1.4%	13.9%	25.0%	44.4%	11.1%	5.6%
11	While listening, I try to connect what I hear with information I gained from experiences in the world.	12.2%	8.1%	41.9%	18.9%	18.9%	2.7%	9.5%	35.1%	29.7%	23.0%	23.6%	13.9%	26.4%	25.0%	11.1%	8.3%	22.2%	30.6%	26.4%	12.5%

12	I note down key words and concepts while listening.	16.2%	23.0%	27.0%	23.0%	10.8%	0.0%	17.6%	25.7%	32.4%	24.3%	22.2%	18.1%	27.8%	12.5%	19.4%	4.2%	6.9%	29.2%	40.3%	19.4%
13	After listening, I make a summary of the information I heard.	28.4%	33.8%	25.7%	10.8%	1.4%	4.1%	20.3%	41.9%	24.3%	9.5%	33.3%	30.6%	25.0%	6.9%	4.2%	13.9%	29.2%	41.7%	11.1%	4.2%
14	When listening, I would like to repeat the words or phrases again and again in English.	25.7%	18.9%	32.4%	16.2%	6.8%	5.4%	13.5%	27.0%	31.1%	23.0%	33.3%	22.2%	25.0%	9.7%	9.7%	11.1%	23.6%	33.3%	22.2%	9.7%
15	When listening, I try to translate from English to Chinese.	4.1%	10.8%	20.3%	37.8%	27.0%	1.4%	9.5%	12.2%	41.9%	35.1%	15.3%	12.5%	23.6%	26.4%	22.2%	8.3%	20.8%	29.2%	25.0%	16.7%
16	When listening, I try to group the words that sound the same.	33.8%	32.4%	20.3%	9.5%	4.1%	13.5%	32.4%	36.5%	10.8%	6.8%	43.1%	26.4%	9.7%	9.7%	11.1%	20.8%	34.7%	26.4%	8.3%	9.7%
17	When listening, I use my knowledge of Chinese to understand better.	5.4%	10.8%	33.8%	29.7%	20.3%	1.4%	9.5%	32.4%	31.1%	25.7%	20.8%	13.9%	23.6%	27.8%	13.9%	8.3%	15.3%	33.3%	30.6%	12.5%
18	If I do not understand something in listening, I ask the other person to explain.	36.5%	24.3%	27.0%	12.2%	0.0%	10.8%	21.6%	32.4%	29.7%	5.4%	41.7%	23.6%	19.4%	9.7%	5.6%	22.2%	30.6%	29.2%	15.3%	2.8%
19	When listening, I use sentence syntax (the grammatical structure) to comprehend the message.	36.5%	33.8%	16.2%	8.1%	5.4%	6.8%	24.3%	41.9%	17.6%	9.5%	45.8%	29.2%	18.1%	5.6%	1.4%	18.1%	37.5%	29.2%	12.5%	2.8%
20	As I listen I quickly adjust my interpretation is I realize that it is not correct.	8.1%	10.8%	24.3%	33.8%	23.0%	1.4%	9.5%	23.0%	44.6%	21.6%	9.7%	19.4%	36.1%	19.4%	15.3%	4.2%	18.1%	36.1%	26.4%	15.3%
21	After listening, I make summaries of information that I hear in English.	51.4%	28.4%	16.2%	0.0%	4.1%	12.2%	39.2%	33.8%	10.8%	4.1%	52.8%	27.8%	9.7%	8.3%	1.4%	19.4%	34.7%	27.8%	13.9%	4.2%

22	When listening, I try to understand the meaning of key words.	4.1%	6.8%	20.3%	28.4%	40.5%	0.0%	0.0%	24.3%	35.1%	40.5%	4.2%	11.1%	22.2%	41.7%	20.8%	4.2%	11.1%	29.2%	41.7%	13.9%
23	If I do not understand something when listening, I keep on listening for clarification later on.	2.7%	9.5%	17.6%	35.1%	35.1%	1.4%	5.4%	17.6%	40.5%	35.1%	9.7%	12.5%	25.0%	31.9%	20.8%	5.6%	16.7%	22.2%	33.3%	22.2%
24	If I do not understand something when listening, I lose my immediate train of concentration, but try to recover it right away.	2.7%	8.1%	28.4%	32.4%	28.4%	0.0%	4.1%	20.3%	41.9%	33.8%	6.9%	9.7%	26.4%	31.9%	25.0%	4.2%	8.3%	34.7%	31.9%	20.8%
25	When I listen to a text, I focus on the words as well as the intonation and stress that the speaker uses.	12.2%	20.3%	25.7%	21.6%	20.3%	2.7%	12.2%	28.4%	33.8%	23.0%	19.4%	23.6%	20.8%	22.2%	13.9%	6.9%	18.1%	47.2%	20.8%	6.9%
26	While I am listening to a text, I consciously keep in mind that information that I need to listen for.	4.1%	9.5%	24.3%	33.8%	28.4%	1.4%	4.1%	14.9%	48.6%	31.1%	4.2%	18.1%	19.4%	31.9%	26.4%	5.6%	9.7%	43.1%	25.0%	16.7%
27	I use the speaker's tone of voice to guess the meaning of unknown words in a text.	24.3%	14.9%	33.8%	18.9%	8.1%	5.4%	16.2%	29.7%	36.5%	12.2%	18.1%	23.6%	23.6%	18.1%	16.7%	6.9%	31.9%	30.6%	19.4%	11.1%
28	When I work together with other students, it helps me to successfully complete a task.	16.2%	25.7%	32.4%	20.3%	5.4%	6.8%	5.4%	39.2%	39.2%	9.5%	27.8%	26.4%	31.9%	8.3%	5.6%	11.1%	30.6%	37.5%	12.5%	8.3%
29	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in listening.	36.5%	25.7%	16.2%	13.5%	8.1%	16.2%	24.3%	33.8%	14.9%	10.8%	25.0%	25.0%	25.0%	11.1%	13.9%	19.4%	27.8%	27.8%	16.7%	8.3%
30	When listening, I constantly encourage myself.	4.1%	16.2%	44.6%	24.3%	10.8%	1.4%	16.2%	31.1%	36.5%	14.9%	16.7%	22.2%	23.6%	23.6%	13.9%	8.3%	22.2%	26.4%	27.8%	15.3%
C. Source of self-efficacy information																					
1.	Among my friends I am usually the one who figures out English questions (e.g., like being able to understand a specific listening text in a group work,	21.6%	36.5%	29.7%	6.8%	5.4%	9.5%	31.1%	37.8%	14.9%	6.8%	31.9%	29.2%	20.8%	5.6%	12.5%	12.5%	40.3%	26.4%	9.7%	11.1%

	or being able to understand a English speaker outside of classroom).																				
2.	I am confident with my English listening abilities.	18.9%	21.6%	32.4%	12.2%	14.9%	4.1%	25.7%	36.5%	21.6%	12.2%	16.7%	33.3%	16.7%	16.7%	16.7%	9.7%	33.3%	27.8%	15.3%	13.9%
3.	I would like to improve my English listening skills through continuously practice.	1.4%	2.7%	5.4%	28.4%	62.2%	0.0%	1.4%	2.7%	32.4%	63.5%	1.4%	6.9%	8.3%	30.6%	52.8%	1.4%	6.9%	18.1%	36.1%	37.5%
4.	I am afraid of doing English listening comprehension exercises when I know it will be graded.	14.9%	14.9%	24.3%	24.3%	21.6%	12.2%	17.6%	27.0%	28.4%	14.9%	13.9%	11.1%	20.8%	31.9%	22.2%	8.3%	16.7%	29.2%	31.9%	13.9%
5.	I believe the English listening sessions are able to help me improve my listening abilities.	2.7%	1.4%	1.4%	25.7%	68.9%	0.0%	0.0%	8.1%	31.1%	60.8%	4.2%	6.9%	11.1%	26.4%	51.4%	4.2%	5.6%	27.8%	22.2%	40.3%
6.	Many of the adults I know are in occupations that require good English listening skill.	16.2%	18.9%	27.0%	16.2%	21.6%	16.2%	20.3%	27.0%	20.3%	16.2%	22.2%	19.4%	18.1%	25.0%	15.3%	18.1%	23.6%	20.8%	22.2%	15.3%
7.	I was often encouraged by my teacher is to join clubs which required English listening related ability (i.e., English conversation/speech club…etc.)	16.2%	21.6%	17.6%	18.9%	25.7%	6.8%	16.2%	20.3%	24.3%	32.4%	23.6%	20.8%	25.0%	18.1%	12.5%	8.3%	13.9%	25.0%	26.4%	26.4%
8.	I would like to try to challenge difficult English listening tasks.	43.2%	31.1%	16.2%	6.8%	2.7%	40.5%	29.7%	16.2%	9.5%	4.1%	31.9%	29.2%	30.6%	8.3%	0.0%	25.0%	36.1%	23.6%	13.9%	1.4%
9.	I receive good grades in English listening tests.	27.0%	29.7%	33.8%	8.1%	1.4%	12.2%	29.7%	41.9%	14.9%	1.4%	23.6%	29.2%	34.7%	9.7%	2.8%	9.7%	51.4%	29.2%	5.6%	4.2%
10	I think English listening skills are the important part of learning, as well as the elementary skills in the career.	2.7%	2.7%	6.8%	16.2%	71.6%	1.4%	1.4%	10.8%	27.0%	59.5%	1.4%	2.8%	12.5%	26.4%	56.9%	4.2%	5.6%	16.7%	34.7%	38.9%

11	Although I am being poor at English listening, I am still persistently practicing my listening comprehension skills.	1.4%	8.1%	21.6%	31.1%	37.8%	4.1%	5.4%	16.2%	37.8%	36.5%	5.6%	6.9%	25.0%	19.4%	41.7%	2.8%	12.5%	30.6%	25.0%	29.2%
12	I get really uptight while taking English listening comprehension exams.	13.5%	24.3%	32.4%	18.9%	10.8%	18.9%	24.3%	33.8%	13.5%	9.5%	6.9%	30.6%	22.2%	22.2%	18.1%	15.3%	20.8%	23.6%	25.0%	15.3%
13	I am rarely able to help my classmate was difficult English listening tasks.	12.2%	10.8%	27.0%	29.7%	20.3%	10.8%	18.9%	29.7%	31.1%	9.5%	11.1%	18.1%	20.8%	36.1%	13.9%	5.6%	19.4%	36.1%	25.0%	13.9%
14	I believe I could receive good grades in English listening tests.	9.5%	13.5%	39.2%	20.3%	17.6%	4.1%	13.5%	39.2%	28.4%	14.9%	8.3%	18.1%	27.8%	22.2%	23.6%	8.3%	15.3%	36.1%	22.2%	18.1%
15	I can listen to and understand the whole text without difficulty.	4.1%	14.9%	27.0%	33.8%	20.3%	1.4%	10.8%	24.3%	39.2%	24.3%	11.1%	19.4%	34.7%	19.4%	15.3%	5.6%	18.1%	30.6%	27.8%	18.1%
16	I have always had a natural talent for English listening skill.	25.7%	29.7%	27.0%	12.2%	5.4%	12.2%	35.1%	31.1%	13.5%	8.1%	30.6%	41.7%	20.8%	2.8%	4.2%	16.7%	37.5%	31.9%	6.9%	6.9%
17	Because it is difficult to improve English listening skills, I don't like to practice listening.	45.9%	25.7%	17.6%	8.1%	2.7%	37.8%	25.7%	25.7%	8.1%	2.7%	25.0%	31.9%	18.1%	16.7%	8.3%	16.7%	36.1%	36.1%	9.7%	1.4%
18	Classroom-based listening training could improve my learning desires.	6.8%	10.8%	33.8%	31.1%	17.6%	1.4%	17.6%	24.3%	33.8%	23.0%	15.3%	31.9%	23.6%	22.2%	6.9%	5.6%	19.4%	31.9%	36.1%	6.9%
19	I like to practice listening because of my interests.	16.2%	18.9%	21.6%	28.4%	14.9%	14.9%	24.3%	20.3%	27.0%	13.5%	12.5%	23.6%	13.9%	23.6%	26.4%	8.3%	23.6%	29.2%	27.8%	11.1%
20	I would like to listen to some of difficult listening materials for practicing.	44.6%	23.0%	23.0%	5.4%	4.1%	17.6%	44.6%	27.0%	6.8%	4.1%	36.1%	33.3%	19.4%	4.2%	6.9%	19.4%	36.1%	27.8%	8.3%	8.3%

Appendix 16 The correlation between the self-efficacy and listening strategy use

		EG self-efficacy(pre)	EG listening strategy use(post)
EG self-efficacy (pre)	Pearson Correlation	1	.504**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	74	74
EG listening strategy use (pre)	Pearson Correlation	.504**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	74	74
		CG self-efficacy(pre)	CG listening strategy use(pret)
CG Self-efficacy (pre)	Pearson Correlation	1	.510**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	72	72
CG listening strategy use (pre)	Pearson Correlation	.510**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	72	72
		CG self-efficacy(post)	CG listening strategy use(ost)
CC Post-efficacy (post)	Pearson Correlation	1	.418**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	74	74
CC listening strategy use (post)	Pearson Correlation	.418**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	72	72

Appendix 17 The listening materials of pre and post-tests

2009 年 3 月全国公共英语等级考试第二级

第一节

1. W: Thanks for lunch. It was delicious. Next time it's on me.

M: Don't be silly.

W: I'm serious.

M: All right, next time you treat.

2. M: What's the Chemistry homework Mr. Brown gave us today?

W: Just a minute, I will look it up in my notebook.

3. M: Did you listen to the weather report this morning, Helen?

W: Yes, it says we are going to have a wet weekend. We may get some very heavy rain in the mountain areas.

M: That means we can't go camping but we'll have to stay in.

4. M: Ah, Maggie. I want all these books here.

W: That might be a lot for your Dad to buy at one time.

M: My Dad gets me all the books I want.

W: Well, that's very nice of him.

5. M: Will you excuse me for a moment? I left my keys in the car.

W: Certainly.

第二节

6. M: Bob Gorden's speaking.

W: Hello, Bob. It's Ann here. How are things?

M: Fine. How about you?

W: Oh, not so bad. Listen, I want to talk to you, Bob, about next Thursday. I hope you haven't forgotten.

M: No, no, I've got it in my diary, just looking it up. Thursday, 14th; meeting in Birmingham; don't know when or where, though.

W: Right, that's what Don White asked me to tell you. It's in Birmingham at a quarter past eleven, in the Rose.

M: The Rose Hotel?

W: Yes, the one opposite the park. Err ... now, you've got the time, right? 11:15, OK?

M: Yeah, fine, 11:15. I may be a few minutes late. There's a train from here at 8:10. I'll take that one. Which train are you getting?

W: I'm catching the 10:17. It gets in at about 10:45.

M: OK. See you Thursday then. Cheer then.

W: Bye, Bob.

7. W: Mag, I've just got us tickets to Singapore.
M: This is just too exciting. So when do we set off?
W: The plane leaves tomorrow afternoon. So we need to set off to the airport at 11:00 a. m.

M: Just let me write that down, so I don't forget. So we leave at 11:00 a. m. Do we stop off anywhere on the way or is a direct flight?
W: Well, there aren't any direct flights. But, we are very lucky, with these tickets, we can stop off in Hong Kong. So, we can stop and spend two days there on our way to Singapore.
M: You are great. I've always wondered to go there. So we stop off in Hong Kong, and just one more thing, when do we get back?
W: We'll return home in ten days' time.
M: Wow, wonderful. I just can't wait.

8. M: Have you booked the table, Madam?
W: Yes. We've booked one for two. The name is Morrison.
M: Oh, yes. We have the table for you near the group. This way, please.
W: Group? What group? Oh, the music group, I suppose. I can't stand the noisy places. Now, where's the menu?
M: It's on the wall, Madam, on the blackboard.
W: On the blackboard, indeed. I suppose you can't afford proper menus.
M: I'm sorry, Madam. But that's what we always do.
W: I've had such a busy afternoon in my office. If I weren't so hungry, I would leave immediately.

9. W: How was the game, Bill? Did you enjoy it?
M: No, it was not interesting at all.
W: That's too bad. Football games are usually exciting.
M: Not last night. Some of the players didn't know what they were doing. In fact, one of them was just terrible.
W: Well, which team was the winner?
M: The Tigers. They won the game 3 to 1.
W: Were you happy about the score?
M: No. I cheered for the losers.
W: What about Eric and Steve? Which team did they support?
M: Well, Eric was for the Tigers but Steve was for the Lions.
W: Then at least one of you liked the game?
M: Yes, and all of us enjoy eating something. I had a big box of popcorn and an ice-cream.

10. Hi, there, cowboys and cowgirls. For a really exciting day in the Wild West, come to Cactus City Wild West Park. Yes, bring the children along to see a real old time pioneering town. Shoot guns and ride horses down the road. We'll open April through September. 7 days a week from 10:00 a. m. to sundown, only 12 dollars for adults and six dollars for children; or buy a family ticket at 24 dollars. What's

more, every Saturday and Sunday, we have a real Wild West show. Performances start at 2 p. m. and last for two and half hours. That's value for money. There are free buses to the park throughout the day every Saturday and Sunday from Cactus City Centre. Yes, so we. There's a lot of fun waiting for all the family at Cactus City Wild West Park.

2011 年 3 月全国公共英语等级考试第二级

第一节

1. W: Hi, David! Nice to meet you here in the library!
   M: Me too. Do you know where Linda is?
   W: I'm just going to meet her in my office in half an hour. She's now having her class.
2. M: How about driving into the country on Thursday?
   W: Well, I'll see if I can get the afternoon off, and I'd like to see my parents first.
3. W: How was your research going, Jack?
   M: Well, not bad. I talked to some students and got their opinions. And now I've got to write the paper based on the information I've collected.
4. W: Tom said he could get your club some tickets to the game if you're interested.
   M: If we are interested. Look, Susan. We've been trying to get tickets everywhere.
5. M: It's sunny and warm. Stop studying and come into the garden with me.
   W: Why not?

第二节

6. M: Is everything going well according to the plan?
   W: Our store will open two weeks before Christmas.
   M: I guess we should announce ourselves soon. Tell people we're coming. Put up a big sign.
   W: Sure. The minute they see the sign, they will be lining up.
   M: To show their anger.
   W: Yeah. They are lining up not to buy things but to show their anger. Because some people think train stores all look the same.
   M: They'll hate us in the beginning. But we'll get them in the end.
7. W: Can't you do something about the service in the hotel, manager?
   M: I'm sorry madam. What's the problem exactly?
   W: My breakfast, that's the problem.
   M: Yes?
   W: I ordered breakfast from room service. Oh, at least half an hour ago.
   M: Yes?
   W: I've telephoned room service three times, but my breakfast still hasn't come.
   M: I see.
   W: I've got an important meeting at nine o'clock. And now it seems I'll have to go there without breakfast. Really, I don't think this is good enough.
   M: I'm very sorry about this madam. You ordered breakfast half an hour ago and you've phoned three times since then.
   W: That's right.
   M: I'm really sorry about that. You should have received your breakfast no later than five to ten minutes after you had ordered it.
   W: That's what I thought.
   M: The problem may be that there are short of people in the kitchens recently. But I'll look into this. And I'll make sure that the breakfast is sent to you immediately. Full English breakfast, was it?
   W: Yes. Full English breakfast.

3. W: How was your research going, Jack?
M: Well, not bad. I talked to some students and got their opinions. And now I've got to write the paper based on the information I've collected.
4. W: Tom said he could get your club some tickets to the game if you're interested.
M: If we are interested. Look, Susan. We've been trying to get tickets everywhere.
5. M: It's sunny and warm. Stop studying and come into the garden with me.
W: Why not?

第二节

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W: Yes. Full English breakfast.

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