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**The Effect and Importance of Authentic Language Exposure in Improving
Listening Comprehension**

by

Mengmei Yin

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of

St. Cloud State University

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Abstract

An increasing number of international students choose to study English in United States so they have the authentic language environment to effectively improve their language skills. The current study conducts a statistical analysis to examine the relationship between learners' outside-of-class language activities and their listening comprehension performance in listening tests. In addition to language activities, learners' metacognitive awareness level and self-efficacy level are examined with respect to their relationships to learners' listening comprehension performance. Based on the survey, learners do get involved in different outside-of-class English language activities and enjoy an authentic language environment by studying abroad. Also, the results of the regression analysis reveal evidence on the significant correlations between some outside-of-class activities and listening comprehension performance. Activities such as having people speaking English around or being spoken to and English reading are shown to be significantly correlated with learners' listening comprehension improvement either positively or negatively. Furthermore, the analysis shows a positive relationship between learners' self-efficacy level and their listening comprehension level, and suggests the necessity to help learners improve their self-efficacy performance.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Studies about teaching listening skills and examining factors affecting listening comprehension have been gradually gaining more and more attention in the area of second language acquisition. For most international students who do not get enough exposure to authentic English speaking environment or chances to interact using English, listening comprehension skill is always something they could only learn to improve in classes through intensive training. As a study trying to depict a general picture of factors that have been found correlating with listening comprehension, the topic of my study is to conduct a regression analysis to evaluate some general factors and their significance in correlating with learners' listening comprehension skills. Among all general factors, the elements of language exposure as one type of input are focused on to address the question of whether language environment and immersion are important for improving listening comprehension. Most importantly, possible outside-of-class language input (exposure to the language environment through immersion and input) is included in the study by surveying a group of English learners with the consideration of characteristics affecting listening comprehension skill. Also, to make the study more valid with the consideration of students' awareness and attitude towards English study, the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) and a self-efficacy listening skill questionnaire are conducted through the study.

By reviewing previous studies and considering the research topic of the current study, a number of independent variables are selected and grouped into three categories: factors contributing to the exposure to oral and written language input outside of English classes, metacognitive awareness scale, and self-efficacy level in listening skills.

Research Questions

Several research questions are posted to guide the research towards addressing the topic. The research questions are:

1. What do learners do outside of class in terms of listening? How many hours do learners invest in these activities to receive English input and to interact in English?
2. Among all factors selected, what factors are most significantly correlating with learner's test scores for evaluating listening comprehension?
3. Will the results for Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) and Self-efficacy about Listening Skill Questionnaire show correlation with learners' listening comprehension performance?

In order to address these research questions, a regression analysis will be conducted by using a data analysis software (E-views) to calculate the significance of all the independent variables collected with respect to their correlation to the level of listening comprehension.

In choosing the independent variables, previous studies have been taken into consideration as evidences supporting the rationale behind the choices.

Significance of the Study

The main purpose of the current study is to provide some valid statistical evidence to determine the relationship between the improvement on listening comprehension performance and learner's outside-of-class exposure to authentic language input and language interactions. At the same time, characteristics such as metacognitive awareness and self-efficacy are also evaluated with respect to their correlation with listening comprehension.

The current study is expected to provide evidence on the positive relationship between language exposure and listening comprehension. It also intends to shed light on future study in related research areas where outside-of-class activities are evaluated with respect to their possible relationship with in-class performance. Moreover, data collected from the questionnaires alone reveals valuable information on learner's preference on outside-of-class activities and their general metacognitive awareness and self-efficacy level.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Listening Comprehension in Second Language (L2) Acquisition

According to Vandergrift and Goh (2012), listening is the skill that “enables language learners to receive and interact with language input and facilitates the emergence of other language skills.” Osada (2004) summarized that listening comprehension has gradually changed from “a passive skill that can be developed through repeated exposure” to “an active skill that involves many processes” in research. Listeners are not only decoding but also interpret the message they received just as what they do in reading comprehension (Xu, 2011). Most importantly, people have started to recognize the fact that listening comprehension is a “complex, dynamic, and fragile” process that can be affected by many factors (Celce-Murcia, 1995).

Attention has also been brought to the area where the difference between first language (L1) listening and second language (L2) listening is discussed. Cutler (2012) argues that despite the differences between native language listening and foreign language listening, it is always the requirements of native listening that we, as listeners, need to meet through the process of listening. In this sense, Cutler (2012) further states that second language listening shares the same steps with first language listening, only more difficulties emerge during each step of listening due to listeners’ inadequate proficiency in L2. Rost (2014) supports Cutler’s statement by highlighting the point that listeners tend to perceive things through their experience in L1. However, for effective L2 listening learners should be able to suppress this tendency and learn to further merge the process of L2 listening towards L1 listening (Rost, 2014).

When talking about factors relating to listening skills, earlier in Vandergrift and Goh's study it was stated that effective listening largely depends on a harmonious cooperation of bottom-up and top-down information processing (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). This indicates that there is a cooperative work between comprehending basic units of sound stream and applying context and prior knowledge. Also in Vandergrift's study where he discusses how much learner's L1 knowledge contributes to L2 comprehension, one conclusion is drawn that the relationship is rather significantly positive and that vocabulary knowledge and metacognitive knowledge in L2 play an important role in the development of comprehension in L2 (Vandergrift, 2006).

Factors Discussed in Previous Studies

In the review study by Rubin (1994) it is mentioned that an ongoing dialogue of a research body has gradually formed based on previous studies researching factors with their relationships with second language listening comprehension. The five main factors that have emerged from the dialogue are "text characteristics, interlocutor characteristics, task characteristics, listener characteristics, and process characteristics" (Rubin, 1994).

Rubin's study sheds light on a significant number of later studies discussing possible factors affecting second language listening comprehension, especially the ones talking about listener characteristics. For example, Jeon (2008) conducted a study with a group of 141 college English as a second language learners studying in the United States for the purpose of examining the impact of their content knowledge and English proficiency on listening comprehension skills. In this study, main demographic characters such as residency in the United States, time spent on English study in the target language speaking country, gender,

academic level (undergraduate vs. graduate), and other variables were collected and analyzed. Among all factors, gender and L1 background were claimed to be significant variables affecting listening comprehension test performance with females receiving higher scores in the posttest. However, variables such as time of residency and academic level did not show direct significant relationship with comprehension skills. Some variables that were reported to show indirect impact are academic major and proficiency level; both variables affected strategy choice and use in listening tests).

Similarly, Moyer's study concerns individual learner factors as well as text-related factors for advanced level listening comprehension (Moyer, 2006). Participants are 27 advanced learners studying German as a second language. Ten native speakers comprised the control group. The study provided listening texts in different length to fulfill the purpose of examining text-related factors. Also, the study surveyed the participants to ask for information of their "German language experiences," especially "total amount of instruction in German, contexts for studying and for using German both in-country and in United States, non-classroom contact with German Currently in terms of hours spent weekly engaged in German-contact activities as well as specific contexts and modes of that contact, etc." (Moyer, 2006). In addition to surveying the time span of residence in native speaking countries, this study asked more specific and detailed information relating to learners' natural contact within the language environment under different kinds of both formal and informal contexts. To be more specific, Moyer's study categorized language contact by locations (work, school, family, etc.) and source for language use (native speaker or nonnative speaker). Moreover, participants

reported possible contexts for them to receive language contact outside of class such as talking with friends, watching TV or films, and writing Email/using the Internet.

The statistical analysis of Moyer's study reveals that age, length of residency (in target language country), primary language contact with native speaker, and gender played significant roles in affecting listening comprehension. In addition, Moyer suggests that more interaction in multiple L2 interacting contexts is always better than less.

Besides the studies mentioned above, other studies continue to consider individual characteristics and their relationships with listening comprehension. For example, Jafari (2010) has investigated the relationship between learner motivation and listening comprehension with a sample consisting of 64 Iranian EFL students majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language. Conveniently, the study also provided the opportunity to look into gender and years of college study. Results suggested a significant relationship between years of college study and listening comprehension level, and an insignificant impact of gender. And most significantly, there is a positive relationship between motivation and listening comprehension proficiency discovered by the study (Jafari, 2010).

In addition to studies examining the direct correlations between learner characteristics and listening, many other studies have suggested indirect relationships between the two. Most of these studies focused their attention on the role of strategy use.

Lee and Oxford (2008) did a statistical analysis on the impact of strategy awareness, English learning self-image, and learners' perceived importance of English study on learner's strategy use. It states that learners who think English study is important, have the awareness of strategy use, as well as being confident in their own English skill used more learning

strategies (Lee & Oxford, 2008). The statistical analysis supported the above statement.

Moreover, Lee and Oxford (2008) also discovered insignificant influences on strategy uses for gender and major.

In the study of Fateme, Aliakbar Jafarpour, and Akbar (2012), the factors of individual differences were examined considering their impact on the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in listening comprehension. Individual differences in this study refers to learner's age, gender, level of motivation, learning style and personality traits. With 40 Iranian college level EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students (consisted of 24 female and 16 male) aging between 19 and 53, the study reveals that only 5% of the learners used metacognitive strategies while listening. Also, only motivation and personality traits were statistically significant in predicting the use of strategies in listening comprehension with motivation as the strongest predictor (Fateme et al., 2012). It suggests that motivation is a strong predictor of learner's strategy choose during listening comprehension tasks.

The reason to consider the studies learning the relationship between learner characteristics and listening strategy use is the simple assumption that effective strategy use is positively related to listening comprehension. To show the importance of strategy use in comprehension efficiency comes Holden's statement that listening comprehension is the process consisting many skills, and all these skills "play an important role in the process of language acquisition and the development of related language skills" (Holden, 2004). It should be noted that the ability of applying effective strategies will be beneficial for learners to comprehend the language input they receive.

In the following section, reviews of studies related to individual factors correlating with listening comprehension are separately listed accordingly to their focus:

Gender: As mentioned above, previous studies have considered the possible relationship between gender and listening. For example, in Boyle's study, male learners show a better performance in the tests of listening vocabulary (Boyle, 1987). Similarly in the study of MacLeod and Larsson (2011), which discusses outside of class activities English learners prefer, gender plays a significant role in the discussion. The study mainly focuses on the language input from the internet, television, and radio, as well as the basic reading and writing activities such as reading newspapers and writing short stories and poems. Result suggests that gender difference does affect learner's preference over computer games, newspapers, online reading, and song lyrics (MacLeod & Larsson, 2011).

On the contrary, many other studies found no significant relationship between gender and listening comprehension. As mentioned earlier, Jafari's study found the impact from gender on listening comprehension is insignificant (Jafari, 2010). This finding is consistent with the results of other studies such as Markham (1998), Kariminian (2001), and Jafari (2008).

The mixed results revealed in previous studies do suggest a closer look into gender difference over the issue of factors correlating with listening comprehension and that gender should be considered as a variable in this current study. However, gender difference is not considered as an independent variable in this study due to two reasons. First of all, while conducting the survey and data collection process, the protection of participants' privacy was considered as a priority and was stated in the consent letter to encourage more students to

participate in the study with the confidence that their personal information and performance are not revealed and being judged. Second, together with other potential demographic variables, gender hasn't been taken into consideration due to the scale of the study. With a big range of independent variables from the categories of outside of class activities and a small sample size, taking a whole other category of independent variables such as demographic factors into consideration will increase the difficulty of the quantitative research and decrease the accuracy of the study.

It is no doubt a limitation that demographic data were not collected or tested in this study and it might prevent a more in-depth analysis of the influence from other variables. Nevertheless, this study aims at providing evidence of possible benefit from outside-of-class variables and it can be treated as a guide for future studies that possess the chance to test the theories on a larger scale.

Metacognitive awareness: As one important variable in listening strategies discussed by Rubin (1994), metacognitive strategies refer to the process of “planning, monitoring, and evaluating comprehension” (Rubin, 1994). More specifically, it means the process of the learners consciously choose and apply actions while listening (Serri, Boroujeri, & Hesabi, 2012). The level of metacognitive awareness shows the extent to which learners know about their learning process and aware of how to learn with metacognitive strategies. With sufficient level of metacognitive awareness, learners will be aware of the strategies they can apply in comprehension and understand the extent to which they will be able to manage these strategies (Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, & Tafaghodtari, 2006).

Earlier Vandergrift has concluded some kind of evidences showing the positive relationship between proficiency level in language study and the ability in applying metacognitive strategies (Vandergrift, 1992). Anderson (2003) believes that metacognitive strategies help facilitates the thinking process and thus improves learning. Moreover, Vandergrift et al. (2006) states that learners with higher levels of metacognitive awareness are more successful at storing and processing newly acquired information. Although Rubin has pointed out the problem of defining “success” in language study, later studies have continued to examine metacognitive awareness and its role in language learning.

In addition to the discussion of the relationship between metacognitive awareness and language learning in general, many studies have devoted to discover the relationship between metacognitive awareness and listening comprehension performance. While the study of Goh and Yusnita (2006) inserted the positive effect of listening strategies on listening comprehension, Yang (2009) shows that metacognition instruction plays an important role in improving learners’ strategy use and thus helping learners with their listening tasks. In the study of Goh and Hu (2014), metacognitive awareness level has shown to significantly affect learners’ listening performance.

Pedagogically, metacognitive awareness training can improve learner’s listening comprehension. Bozorgian (2014) shows evidences with a group of 30 male EFL learners being taught with metacognitive awareness that metacognitive instruction did help increase the awareness of handling listening tasks and learners are more intended to use metacognitive strategies to gain better performance. Coskun (2010) further suggests the benefit of a 5-week

metacognitive listening strategy training program for strategy use and its ultimate impetus on listening comprehension performance.

As for learner's metacognitive awareness level itself, in the study of Al-Alwan, Asassfeh, and Al-Shboul (2013), a statistic analysis with the participation of 386 tenth graders indicates the learners generally had moderate level of metacognitive awareness towards listening comprehension. The most significant part of this study is that it divides the questions in the metacognitive questionnaire into several categories according to their nature and discussed their significance separately. The study shows that "whereas directed attention and personal knowledge fail to explain the variance in students' listening comprehension performance, problem solving, planning an evaluation, and directed attention are capable of explaining 56% of the variance in students' performance on the LCT" (Ahmed et al., 2013).

Self-efficacy: Self-efficacy is broadly defined as "the belief in one's ability to carry out specific tasks successfully" and is "crucial to the development of effective listening skills" (Graham, 2011). Similar to metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy is treated as a very important indicator of factors correlating with listening comprehension.

Earlier Vandergrift (2006) has found a positive relationship between self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness, which leads to the assumption that self-efficacy might as well facilitate listening comprehension since evidences are discovered by previous studies about the positive relationship between metacognitive awareness and listening comprehension. Not surprisingly, later in the study by Rahimi and Abedini (2009) a positive relationship between self-efficacy and listening comprehension is discovered. Thus a questionnaire

designed to measure learner's self-efficacy level is presented in this current study to further discover the effect of self-efficacy.

Outside-of-class Language Exposure

For defining outside-of-class language exposure, Benson's definition of "out-of-class learning" is taken as it fits into the context of this current study. The term is defined as "any kind of learning that takes place outside the classroom and involves self-instruction, naturalistic learning or self-directed naturalistic learning" (Benson, 2001). The form of outside-of-class language exposure can be summarized as television, internet, radio, music, L2 interaction, book/magazine/newspaper, and movie watching (Lindgren & Muñoz, 2013; Macleod & Larsson, 2011; Pearson, 2003).

Outside-of-class language exposure in this study is a representative term referring to possible language exposure in learner's everyday life, including activities learners do outside of their language class that can bring language input. One of the main purposes of this study is to evaluate outside-of-class language exposure with respect to its possible correlations with learner's listening comprehension.

The idea "comprehensible input" brought up by Krashen (1985) led to follow-up research trying to find evidence to support the idea that by exposing to authentic language either inside or outside of school will help learners acquire language acquisition with the help of existed knowledge and cues from the environment (Krashen, 1989; Neuman & Koskinen, 1992). Krashen (1989) raised the idea that "comprehensible input" is a process which requires receiving and understanding, together with the necessary amount of motivation. Also in

Krashen's idea, the language acquisition process through hearing and reading is a representation of "incidental learning" (Krashen, 1989).

Early, Carroll (1967) has found that the relationship between times spent in the country where the target language is spoken and the test performance is significantly positive. Even those who reported to have only spent a summer in the target language spoken country showed better performance than the ones who have never been in the target language spoken country (Carroll, 1967). Later Upshur compared the performances of three groups of adult English learners studying in United States with one group attending 1 hour of ESL instruction daily, one group attending ESL 2 hours daily, and a third group attending college studies without ESL instructions. The result shows that "no significant effects on language learning attributable to amount of language instruction," and it concludes that "foreign language courses may at this time be less effective means for producing language learning than the use of language in other activities" (Upshur, 1968).

The problem with Upshur's study is that, the selection and categorization of the three experimental groups already showed some sample bias. The three groups of learners are at different English competence level where the none-ESL-treatment group was selected because they performed best in the entrance test. Accordingly, the group of learners who received ESL training 2 hours daily were selected due to their lowest performance in the entrance test. Although the independent variable that has been tested was the improvement separately received by the three groups, there might have been different factors other than ESL training that have affected the result of the study.

Mason (1971) did a similar study with one group of students whose pretest grades require them to take ESL training but they nevertheless got exempted from the program and another group who gained similar grade in the pretest and took the ESL courses. The result showed no significant difference between the two groups considering their improvement (Mason, 1971).

To challenge the benefit of informal exposure brought up by previous studies, Krashen and Seliger (1976) suggest oppositely that more formal instruction should lead to better performance while exposure does not always guarantee improvement on language learning.

There is evidence on the significant relationship between the language environment at home and test performance. Nonnative speakers who had parents using target language frequently showed better test performance than the ones whose parents only occasionally or rarely use target language (Krashen, 1981). However, Krashen carried on the same belief that formal study should be more efficient and effective than informal exposure in terms of helping improving language proficiency (for adult learners specifically). Although Krashen agrees that informal exposure will benefit language learners, but he raised the concern that variables such as years spending in target language spoken country does not always equal to meaningful language involvement. Only intensive language activities that directly involve learners will be helpful and be beneficial type of language exposure (Krashen, 1981).

One thing to be noted is that studies have suggested that although studying in target language spoken country, learners tend to make their learning environment similar to what they have experienced in their own country. So big chance is that the different learning experiences and language exposure brought by learning abroad come mainly from outside-of-

class activities. The study of Cubillos, Chieffo, and Fan (2008) suggested an insignificant difference between the amount of improvement gained by learners who have studied abroad and learners who haven't. However, participants who gained high scores (more than 7 out of 10) on dialogue portion of the listening test showed significant improvement on long paragraph listening (Cubillos et al., 2008).

In terms of exposure, TV and radio news have long been discussed with respect to the positive impact on listening comprehension. Brinton and Gaskill (1978) suggested using TV and radio news to help improve EFL learners' listening comprehension. Poon (1992) showed the significant impact of using TV news to improve listening comprehension. Some might be concerned that the difficulty of the fast speech in TV and radio news might prevent efficient language study. Wetzel, Radtke, and Stern (1994) even found evidence to show that TV news is not always helpful for improving learner's comprehension skills. But studies have found evidence to suggest truth to be otherwise (e.g., Mackenzie, 1997; Poon, 1992). Enough amount of exposure to TV news will help alleviating difficulties encountered and facilitating learning (Baker, 1996; Berber, 1997; Cauldwell, 1996; Nikolic & Cabaj, 2000).

Neuman and Koskinen (1992) believed in the idea that L2 competence is "a function of the amount of comprehensible input received", and they further detailed the idea by analyzing the effect of comprehensible input via captioned television on the vocabulary acquisition. The rationale behind the study is that captioned TV consists of visual, phonetic, and textual input, which conforms a good example for a comprehensive "comprehensible input". With a group of 129 seventh and eighth grade bilingual learners divided into three experimental groups (captioned TV, TV without caption, and reading and listening to text)

and one control group, the result shows that the group with captioned TV had better performance than the other groups. A follow-up factor analysis reveals that providing background information and context descriptions can help learners acquire more vocabulary knowledge. Neuman and Koskinen states that this kind of captioned TV program is especially helpful for L2 learners with evidences provided by prior studies. Similarly, Larsen-Freeman (1983) believes that watching TV is a good way to assist acquisition with easier access and entertainment and help alleviate pressure on learning. However, it is suggested by Anderson and Collins (1998) and Neuman and Koskinen (1992) that the content of TV should be evaluated and properly selected to ensure a “cognitive active experience”. At the same time, appropriate instruction is needed and process should be monitored to help facilitate learner’s awareness of the learning (Neuman & Koskinen, 1992).

Although captioned television is an easy way to involve learners and provide them the opportunity to share ideas, there are disadvantages of it summarized by Neuman and Koskinen: first of all, there is no variance among information received. The ongoing process doesn’t give the opportunity for necessary review. Secondly, too much vocabulary information are given during TV watching, it can be too difficult for learners to acquire the knowledge. Finally, the large quantity of information goes to learner within short time interval, in different forms (visual, written, etc.), it can be too much for the limited capacity of human attention (Neuman & Koskinen, 1992). Nevertheless, the statistical analysis confirms the improvement learners gained through watching captioned TV. Neuman and Koskinen (1992) summarize that “providing different kinds of information through different modalities appeared to enhance incidental learning from context rather than overwhelming students’

attentional capacity.” Thus it should be taken into consideration that there is possibility that language improvement can be gained through captioned TV watching. Although the participants are selected EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners that are different from ESL (English as a Second Language) learners considered in the current study, the mechanism of acquiring knowledge through captioned TV should be the same. All advantages and limitations are equally applicable to both EFL and ESL learners.

In the following section, studies have been categorized and separately reviewed according to their topic and discussions of variables.

Average time exposed to English movies with subtitles per day: As mentioned earlier about captioned TV, studies did find evidence to suggest text assisted oral language input to be helpful in assisting listening skill development. Jakobsdottir and Hooper (1995) states that “when text was present, students made fewer errors on the subsequent comprehension test and gave higher relevance and confidence motivation ratings than when text was absent” (Jakobsdottir & Hooper, 1995). The study suggests that with the assistant of appropriate text while listening to spoken language learners will make fewer mistakes during tasks and show better comprehension in follow-up tasks (Jakobsdottir & Hooper, 1995). Students who were interviewed in the study of Tsai (2009) provided positive feedback about how spending time watching English movies with either English or first language (Chinese) subtitles could help improving their “spelling, word recognition ability, pronunciation of new words and words they have already acquired, their understanding of spoken language” (Tsai, 2009). It is not hard to expect that these improved skills will in turn affect learner’s overall listening comprehension ability.

To further highlight the importance of subtitles (caption), Ghasemband and Nafissi (2012) examined the effect of English captions on the college level Iranian EFL students' listening comprehension of videos. Two groups of students were assigned the same task of watching a short English film and accomplish a multiple choice test afterwards. The difference between the two groups is that one watched the film with subtitles and the other without. Result shows that by providing captions, "learners would have a better chance of understanding the film's content and captions are a means of enhancing students' comprehension of the films in their second language" (Ghasemband & Nafissi, 2012).

Average time exposed to English movies without subtitles per day: To complement the research on the relationship between watching movies with subtitles and listening comprehension, the factor of average time learners spent watching English movies without subtitles is also taken into consideration.

Studies have found that movie watching is popular among second language learners (e.g., Gieve & Clark, 2005; Webb, 2010). In previous studies, there's also evidence discovered about the positive impact of movie watching on vocabulary acquisition (e.g., Neuman & Koskinen, 1992; d'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1997; d'Ydewalle & Van de Poel, 1999).

Webb (2010) examined the scripts of 143 movies to determine using them to decide learner's exposure to low frequency words through watching these movies. Results reveal that there is not enough exposure to ensure learning unless learners keep a regular habit of watching movies over a longer period of time (Webb, 2010). Through long exposure to movies, it is possible for learners to acquire the knowledge of low frequency words but only

under the condition that they know the most frequent 3,000 word families (Webb, 2010).

Some previous studies have provided evidence on how the increase in vocabulary knowledge would help improve listening (e.g., Mehrpour and Rahimi, 2010; Nation, 2006), and we may want to consider the possibility that watching movies may in turn help learners improve their listening comprehension skills in general.

Latifi, Tavakoli, and Dabaghi (2014) studied the influence of authentic aural input on L2 listening comprehension and whether learners can develop a self-regulatory learning mechanism after the training session with the help of unedited movie materials. Although the materials selected were not edited, the whole experimental process was still monitored during which learners were instructed to discuss, predict, and summarize. Instructors would deliberately lead the learners towards the process of helping them develop comprehension related skills such as planning, using strategy, and increasing strategy use awareness. Results show that “by selecting appropriate movie material, self-regulatory approach for the listening comprehension improvement is proved to be significant for both high and low skilled learners” (Latifi et al., 2014).

At the same time, Ghaderpanahi (2012) questioned using films alone as a form of language exposure to help facilitate English learning. He thinks that the impact of movie watching can't be more effective than more communicative activities, which involves more learner participation and interaction.

Nevertheless, since previous studies have provided evidence on the positive effects of vocabulary enhancement brought by watching movies (Tsai, 2009; Webb, 2010), and the general benefits for listening comprehension from movie watching (Jakobsdottir & Hooper,

1995; Latifi et al., 2014), it is worth the effort to conduct statistical analyses to evaluate the effect of English movies on listening performance.

Average time listening to preferred English songs per day: There has been an attempt to discover the relationship between learners' habit of listening to English songs and their listening comprehension performance (e.g., Beasley & Chuang, 2006). As a component of English exposure defined in this study, this variable is included for a statistical analysis.

Writing in English: Writing should never be separated from the discussion of listening comprehension as the two processes interact with each other and are two interrelated aspects of English acquisition.

Derakhshan and Kaivanpanah (2011) discovered in their study that English learners experience difficulty acquiring vocabulary knowledge through repeated writing and memorizing only. In their experiment, students were asked to write text messages to send to their instructor as well as their group-mates to assess the possible benefit brought by text-messaging. Students were taught 15-20 words during the experimental session and they were asked to send text messages containing a sentence they made with the new words. The result showed that the effect of text-messaging was insignificant (Derakhshan & Kaivanpanah, 2011). However, we should note here that the text messages used in Derakhshan and Kaivanpanah's study were not authentic, self-created text messages. More precisely, the sentences learners wrote in their text messages were sentences taught to them during class.

Hours spending on reading books, newspapers, and magazines in English: Ghaderpanahi (2012) examines the effects on learner's listening skills from authentic English material in the form of newspapers and magazines, as well as TV programs. Only female

undergraduate students in the psychology major were included in the study. These students were around 19 and all had had about 6 years of English learning experience. The result shows that there was significant improvement in listening comprehension with the help of authentic English materials (Ghaderpanahi, 2012).

Besides all variables discussed above, other variables such as vocabulary knowledge, first language background, and motivations are considered in previous studies. For example, in Nation's study assessing the required vocabulary size for unassisted comprehension of written and spoken text, a 6,000 to 7,000 word-family vocabulary is needed (98% coverage of text) for spoken text comprehension (Nation, 2006). According to Mehrpour and Rahimi (2010), even though the general vocabulary knowledge affects reading comprehension more than listening comprehension, evidence of the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension competence is obvious in the process of their study.

Previous studies have also talked about learners' L2 development closely related to the similarity between L2 and their first language (L1). Conclusions were drawn that learner's L1 knowledge can facilitate their L2 learning if the two languages are similar linguistically (e.g., Gundel & Tarone, 1992; Vandergrift, 2006).

Motivation is another important factor that has been frequently discussed in previous studies about its relationship with listening comprehension in both L1 and L2 settings. Many studies have considered motivation as one variable that contributes to learners' metacognitive awareness and thus have discovered a positive relationship between learners' motivation and listening comprehension (e.g., Baleghizadeh & Rahimi, 2011; Boyle, 1984; Vandergrift, 2002; Webb, 2010).

These previous discussions and findings suggest we should include variables such as vocabulary knowledge and L1 background in the current study. However, the current study does not expand far enough to include discussions of these variables. Instead, this study focuses more on the outside-of-class activities and includes some important variables that are more plausible to get a measure of. However, we should recognize the limitation of not including these variables. For example, while this study analyzes English learning for students from various countries, not considering the L1 influence is a crucial limitation under the circumstance. Also, previous studies have discovered the close relationship between learner's motivation and metacognitive awareness (e.g., Baleghizadeh & Rahimi, 2011; Boyle, 1984; Vandergrift, 2002; Vandergrift, 2007; Webb, 2010). This study is prevented from digging deeper into the relationship between metacognitive awareness and listening comprehension by being unable to consider the possible influence of learner's motivation. Further studies with better resources are needed for a more in-depth discussion.

Evaluating the Validity of Listening Comprehension Test

According to Taylor and Geranpayeh (2011), the construct of academic test generally meets the requirements of authenticity and validity. As a general understanding of the nature of L2 listening proficiency, it "involves the ability to process acoustic (and sometimes visual) input in order to create a mental model or representation which may then serve as the basis for some form of spoken or written response" (Taylor & Geranpayeh, 2011). To evaluate an academic test which assesses learner's academic listening proficiency level, Weir (2005) depicted a socio-cognitive framework where the validation process of a test can be categorized into three interacting sections: cognitive validity, context validity, and scoring

validity. Based on the framework, the evidence of the existence of cognitive validity, context validity, scoring validity, together with the evaluation of task taker's characteristics should all be considered when evaluating a test (Taylor & Geranpayeh, 2011).

The dependent variable of the current study is going to be a combination of the participants' test scores in the computerized placement test and the final assessment test they take for their listening and speaking classes in a university's English training program. For these tests, students are answering to multiple choice questions based on different types of conversations, passages, and class lectures they are listening to. Taylor and Geranpayeh (2011) raised the socio-cognitive framework for assessing listening tests where the task-taker characteristic includes three main components: "physical/physiological characteristics", "psychological characteristics", and "experiential characteristics". In the socio-cognitive framework, "Physical/physiological characteristics" considers learners' physical and health conditions to make sure the test environment provides an equal access for all learners to show their true ability, where as "psychological characteristics" concerns learners' motivation and how their personalities and preferred task types might affect their performance in a single test. At the same time, "experiential characteristics" refers to the consideration of learners' background both educational wise and cultural wise. It requires the test to be equally familiar to learners so that not any learners need to spend more time on getting used to the task. Based on the socio-cognitive framework, the tests used in this current study can be given the credit of meeting the requirements of an effective evaluation of learners' language level for academic study. First of all, the tests are computerized but manually conducted; students' physical and health conditions will be taken care of before the test. Secondly, although the

questions in the tests are mainly multiple choice questions, the contents and topics of the listening passages vary so that learners not only listen to daily conversations but also authentic academic lecture excerpts. Third, with different cultural backgrounds, all students accepted in the university are at a similar education level and have passed some similar types of assessment tests such as TOEFL test to be accepted. The question types in the university's assessment tests are typical in the tests learners have taken before.

In the computerized placement test and assessment test at both the beginning and the end of the semester, students' practices and studies in the listening and speaking classes they are taking in the university are being assessed. Since the listening and speaking classes in the university's English language program for international students are focused on improving learner's ability in comprehending information they have exposed to and communicate/present information, the computerized listening tests will do a sufficient job in assessing learner's knowledge of comprehending information they have listened to.

To assess the cognitive process involved in listening comprehension is complicated. According to Taylor and Geranpayeh (2011), the general goal of designing an academic listening test is to "ensure that the cognitive processing activated in the test taker by a test task corresponds as closely as possible to what they would expect to do in the academic listening context". In this case, since the purpose of the university's English language program is to help international students become capable of comprehending language input and process the information into knowledge for them to succeed in their academic studies, the computerized listening tests that contain passages extracted from real life situations and examples of academic lectures provide the opportunity to assess learner's relevant listening ability.

In addition, the English training classes are aiming at preparing students to be qualified for the university's general English classes, which is in turn helping students to become proficient in language for them to perform well in other college classes. In this sense, the context of the test makes it very closely relate to the purpose of "corresponds as closely as possible to what they would expect to do in the academic listening context."

Based on the analysis presented above, the dependent variable of the current study is going to be the participants' test scores in the program-wide computerized listening assessment tests, including the beginning-of-the-semester placement test and the end-of-the-semester assessment test for systematic comparisons. Participants take the beginning-of-the-semester test as a requirement to decide whether they need to take the listening and speaking classes in the university's English training program. The participants in this study are students who didn't receive a score that is high enough to exempt them from the English training program. These students took the listening and speaking classes and were asked to take the end-of-the-semester assessment test.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Participants

Participants in the study are a group of 22 college students enrolled in an intensive English training program in the United States. This program is intended for English students whose native languages are not English. These students come from different countries with various experiences in English study. They are taking classes for listening and speaking in the program. At the beginning of the semester, all international students are required to take a computerized placement test to make sure they have efficient language skill for their college course study. Based on their placement test listening scores, the participants in the current study are separately put into a lower level Listening & Speaking class and a slightly advanced level Listening & Speaking class. As mentioned above, demographic data is not considered in this study due to the protection of participants' privacy as well as a guarantee to encourage more students to participate in the study with confidence. Also, the relatively small sample size limited the range of independent variables selected for the study. Pedagogically, this study has its value in discovering "trend" in the matter of factors correlating with listening comprehension as well as providing suggestions for learners to improve their listening comprehension generally (normally as a class) despite demographical differences. There are anticipated limitations caused by the lack of demographic data such as the possible gender differences reflected on the choices and quality of outside-of-class activities. Further studies are needed for a more in depth research with the consideration of demographic variables as well as other possible variables not considered in the current study.

Instruments

Outside-of-class activity questionnaire. A questionnaire is designed to collect the information of participants' outside-of-class activities. The questionnaire asks participants to estimate the amount of time they spend on different outside-of-class activities based on their memory of the past week and provide a number to the questions. The phrase "during last week" used in each question in the questionnaire is to give a limited time frame for participants to reflect on their general preference over weekly activities. The number participants give to answer each question is treated as the value for the variable. A complete sample of the questionnaire is shown in Appendix A.

Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ). As another vital variable for this study, participants' metacognitive awareness level is evaluated by using the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) designed and modified by Vandergrift et al. (2006). Using a 6-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" (6) to "strongly disagree" (1), each participant's total score will be calculated by simply adding up the points they received for each item. It has to be noted that, items 3, 8, and 16 are worded negatively, and items 4, 11, and 18 show mental translation which should be avoided by language learners. The scales for these 6 items should be reversed when calculating the scores (Li, 2013). The Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire used in this current study is shown in Appendix B.

Self-efficacy about Listening Skill Questionnaire. The self-efficacy score needed as another independent variable in this study is calculated based on the questionnaire modified from the questionnaire used in the study of Rahimi and Abedini (2009). Some statements in

the questionnaire are worded slightly differently to make the sentences simpler and clearer for participants to comprehend. Similar to MALQ, the self-efficacy questionnaire is a 6-category Likert scale ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. The score for each participant is calculated based on the points they received for each item. For all the questions, they will receive points accordingly as “strongly agree”=2, “agree”=1, “I don’t know”=0, “disagree”=-1, “strongly disagree”=-2, except items 2, 5, 9, 15, and 17 that are worded negatively so their scores should be reversely calculated. The self-efficacy survey used in this current study is shown in Appendix C.

Procedures

The survey of the three questionnaires mentioned above were conducted during the listening and speaking classes participants were taking. Participants were given the notice in advance and they took the survey voluntarily. A short description was given to them regarding the content of the survey and the types of questions they would face when taking the survey. The three questionnaires were stapled together in the order of Outside-of-Class Activity Questionnaire, the MALQ, and the Self-efficacy Questionnaire. All three questionnaires were distributed to the participants at once. Participants were made aware of the purpose of the survey and were notified that their responses would be used in a study considering listening comprehension improvement.

The survey were given at the end of the class period and participants were given around 20 minutes to finish all three questionnaires. Participants were encouraged to independently fill out the questionnaires based on their own experiences and knowledge.

Data Collection

The data of independent variables were collected through the questionnaires filled out by the participants. The dependent variable is the difference between the two listening test scores learners received at the beginning and the end of the semester.

Dependent variable. The dependent variable to this study is the improvement learners gained through the semester indicated by the difference between the beginning-of-the-semester placement test (PlaceTest) and the end-of-the-semester computerized test (EndTest). The two evaluation tests have identical test format and test the same aspects of learners' listening skills. By subtracting learners' beginning test score from their end test score, their improved grade will be the dependent variable for the study.

Outside-of-class activities. Variables in this category consist of the amount of time spent on different outside-of-class activities that will bring possible language exposure. Table 1 shows all the independent variables collected for this category and their corresponding short names used in data analysis.

Table 1

Variables Describing Outside-of-class Activities

Hours having people speaking English directly to participant	EnglishDire
Hours having people speaking English around	EngAround
Hours spending on watching English movies with subtitles	MovieSub
Hours spending on watching English movies without subtitles	MovieNoSub
Hours spending on listening to English songs	EngSong
Hours spending on watching TV series and/or cartoons in English	EngTV
Hours spending on talking to people face to face	EngFacetoFace
Hours spending on talking on the phone in English	EngPhone
Hours spending on online writing in English	OnlineWrite
Hours spending on writing in English by hand	EngWrite
Hours spending on online reading in English	OnlineRead
Hours spending on reading magazines/books/newspapers (not online)	EngRead
Hours spending on watching video clips in English on the internet	Video

Expected sign for independent variables. One hypothesis to make in this study is that outside-of-class exposure, learner' metacognitive level, and self-efficacy level have positive relationship to their listening comprehension test performance.

Considering prior studies reviewed earlier and the assumption of this current study, all signs for independent variables are expected to be positive.

Determining significance level. To conduct a statistical analysis, a significance level should be set in advance. By doing this, we will be able to decide whether we can reject the null hypothesis and decide the significance of the variable.

By consulting the probability value (p-value), we are able to know the probability of an event that happens by chance. If the p-value calculated for the independent variable is

smaller than the decided significance level, then the independent variable can be decided to be significant in the model.

According to Mackey and Gass (2005), the generally accepted p-value for second language studies is 0.05. This means to decide the significance of an independent variable, the p-value calculated for it should be smaller than the significance value, which is 0.05. However, it was also mentioned that in second language research, researchers sometimes use p-values between 0.05 and 0.10 for discovering “trends” (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

In this study, 1%, 5%, and 10% significance levels (p-value equals to 0.01, 0.05, and 0.10 respectively) are indicated for evaluating the significance of an independent variable. Although the below 5% significance level is conventionally used to decide the significance of an independent variable, I nevertheless decide to mark out the variables that are significant at 10% level. Readers can decide for themselves whether to consider these variables useful. Since the purpose of this study is to discover potential relationships between the dependent variable and independent variables and give some guidance to future studies, it is necessary to even point out possible significant variables at an “approaching significance” level.

Results and Discussion

Descriptive statistics. Apart from all the variables presenting outside-of-class activities and their short names described in Table 1, other variables, including the dependent variable and independent variables, together with their short names are listed in Table 2.

Table 2

Variables and Their Abbreviations

Dependent variable	The difference between the beginning-of-the-semester placement test (PlaceTest) and the end-of-semester computerized test (EndTest) by subtracting the PlaceTest score from the EndTest score.	Improvement
Independent variables	Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire score	MALQ
	Self-efficacy about Listening Skill Questionnaire score	SelfEfficacy

The unit for all the variables describing outside-of-class activities is “hour”.

Participants receive a certain score for each of the test and questionnaire they’ve accomplished, and the unit is “point of score”. The descriptive statistics for the data collected for the variables are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	Std dev	Min	Max	N
EnglishDire	12.56818182	11.42500959	0	42	22
EngAround	23.02272727	24.533979	1.5	100	22
MovieSub	7.068181818	9.322649652	0	40	22
MovieNoSub	8.545454545	10.7480996	0	40	22
EngSong	11.97727273	14.73130556	1	50	22
EngTV	6.840909091	14.73365629	0	60	22
EngFacetoFace	14.02272727	17.8488877	2	80	22
EngPhone	2.090909091	1.961755553	0	7	22
OnlineWrite	9.454545455	11.76547521	0.5	48	22
EngWrite	4.3	8.634041155	0	40	22
OnlineRead	6.05	7.904956251	0.1	32.5	22
EngRead	2.454545455	3.139263983	0	10	22
Video	7.704545455	18.639856868	0	90	22
MALQ	87.59090909	10.900673159	66	105	22
SelfEfficacy	12.13636364	7.093225840	-5	23	22
PlaceTest	73.72727273	4.871509184	63	82	22
EndTest	78.72727273	8.843516959	63	92	22
Improvement	5	8.490891478	-7	22	22

Participants have generally improved on their listening comprehension skill from the beginning test to the end test with the average increased from 73.73 to 78.73. To make sure

that the improvement from placement test to final computerized test is significant, a paired t-test is conducted with participants' test performance in both tests. The result of the paired t-test is shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Paired T-Test with PlaceTest and EndTest

	Paired Differences							
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	90% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	p-value (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
EndTest - PlaceTest	5.000	8.491	1.810	1.885	8.115	2.762	21	0.012

The results of the paired t-test shows that the difference between the placement test and the final computerized test is significant at 95% confidence level (5% significance level) with p-value smaller than 0.05. The mean difference between the two tests is five, which is within the confidence interval (with lower end equals to 1.885 and upper end equals to 8.115). Most importantly, the difference calculated by statistically subtracting PlaceTest from EndTest is a positive value, which means generally students did gain improvement through the two tests.

As for outside-of-class activities, the most popular activities among participants are having people speaking English around (mean \approx 23.02) them, talking English face to face (mean \approx 14.02), and having people speaking English directly to them (mean \approx 12.57). With

standard deviations for the variables ranging from 3.14 (EngRead) to 24.53 (EngAround), participants do show different preferences over different activities.

For the variable of having people speaking English around (EngAround), 8 people received less than 10 hours of exposure. Although the average is the highest for this variable, part of it is probably because of the surprising maximum value which equals to 100. Similar results are revealed for the variable of talking English face to face (EngFacetoFace), 11 people reported less than 10 hours' exposure. With the maximum value equals to 80, the mean value ranked the second place among the other activities.

Being the least favorite, the average hours learners spend on talking on the phone (EngPhone) is 2.09 hours. With the maximum value no larger than 10, participants are distributed within a relatively small range. Most participants spend no more than 2 hours talking on the phone.

Following EngPhone, there are English reading, English writing and English reading online being the less popular activities for learners. It is interesting that the reading and writing activities being so unpopular, but learners do spend some time writing online (mean for OnlineWrite equals to 9.45). But we should note here that, only five participants spend more than 15 hours writing online using English, and the other students spend no more than 10 hours in this activity.

The general trend in outside-of-class activity shows that, variables with higher means usually have more variance within the dataset whereas the less popular activities are participated by individual learners with similar manner. One variable, watching video, stands out and seems to receive moderate amount of participation (mean=7.70), but the maximum

value equals to 90 while all the other participants spend no more than 10 hours on this activity. Apparently the maximum significantly dragged the mean value up.

For metacognitive awareness listening questionnaire (MALQ), the mean equals to 87.59, which reveals a moderately satisfying metacognitive awareness level. With a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 6, considering 4 as the basic satisfying answer to choose (4 means “partly agree” next to “slightly disagree”), participants need to reach a grade of 84 to show they are at least “positive” towards their level of metacognitive awareness. Under this assumption, 15 participants received satisfying grades for the questionnaire. Although there are 7 participants who are slightly under “satisfying line”, only 2 are below 70.

As for self-efficacy about listening skill (SelfEfficacy), there are 18 items with a positive attitude being assigned a positive grade and a negative attitude being assigned a negative grade (0 means “I don’t know”). Receiving a grade of 18 means the participant is generally on the positive side. However, only 5 participants received a grade better than 18. 7 participants are below 10 with one received a -5. Averagely participants are not so confident in their own ability in listening comprehension.

Model for the statistical analysis. For this study, a simple regression model is applied to analyze the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables. The model is shown as follows:

$$\text{Improvement score} = \alpha + \beta X, \quad (1)$$

Where X is a vector indicating English exposure which includes all the different exposure-bringing activities that are discussed above. In the equation, α is a constant value indicating

where the function curve intersects with the Y axis. The value doesn't affect the analysis of the model.

Regression analysis. In order to more accurately run the test and to show the results better, independent variables are put into different groups based on their characteristics and several regression equations are run. Also based on the small sample size, limiting the number of variables in each regression group will help limiting the hazard of sample bias.

Regression analysis of phonetic input through media. In the first group, all media or technology mediated forms of English input are included, particularly the ones that give direct phonic input. Variables in this category include hours spending on listening to English songs (EngSong), watching English TV shows/cartoons (EngTV), watching movies with/without subtitles (MovieSub/MovieNoSub), and hours spending on watching video clips (Video).

Before running the regression, it is necessary to make sure there are no correlations among all the independent variables, so a pre-test was conducted to see whether there are significant correlations among variables. As a result, EngTV and Video are strongly correlated with each other. Based on this result, the two variables were put into different groups of tests. The first group will only contain EngTV with other independent variables in the same category while the second group will only contain Video with other variables. The result for the first regression analysis is shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Regression Analysis of Phonetic Input through Media Group 1

Dependent Variable: IMPROVEMENT		
N: 22		
Independent Variable	Coefficient	t-Statistic
C		0.903
ENGSONG	0.382*	1.406
ENGTV	-0.398	-1.237
MOVIENOSUB	0.116	0.385
MOVIESUB	0.103	0.343
R-squared: 0.149		

Note: An * indicates significance at an approaching level of 10%, ** indicates significance at the 5% level, and *** indicates significance at the 1% level.

Note here that “C” in the result table equals to the “ α ” in our model “Improvement score= $\alpha + \beta X$ ” where it means a constant value that signals the point at where the function curve intersects with the Y axis. The value of C does not affect the results of the regression. In this group, EngSong is the only variable that can be considered significant at an approaching level (significant at 10% level), and it positively correlates with participants’ improvement from their beginning test to their end test. In the table, there is also a value titled R-squared. Here R-squared stands for the statistics term “coefficient of determination”, which measures how well the model explains the data. In another word, the R-squared value here explains how much the independent variables jointly explain the variance of the dependent variable. In our first model, R-squared value (≈ 0.149) shows that around 14.9% of the movement in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variables in this model.

Since EngTV has been tested in the first group, the variable Video (hours spending on watching video clips in English) is included in the second group and EngTV is removed

because it significantly correlates with Video. With other variables remain the same, the regression analysis for the second group is shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Regression Analysis of Phonetic Input through Media Group 2

Dependent Variable: IMPROVEMENT		
N: 22		
Independent Variable	Coefficient	t-Statistic
C		1.340
ENGSONG	0.353	1.324
VIDEO	-0.283	-1.169
MOVIENOSUB	0.075	0.251
MOVIESUB	-0.085	-0.313
R-squared: 0.142		

Note: An * indicates significance at an approaching level of 10%, ** indicates significance at the 5% level, and *** indicates significance at the 1% level.

In this group, none of the independent variables showed any significant correlation with the dependent variable “Improvement”.

For variables under the current category, it is surprising that listening to English songs (EngSong) is the only variable that showed a possible correlation with listening improvement at an approaching level (at 10% significance level). But the result is still reasonable when considering about observations made in previous studies. For TV and movie watching, significant impact comes under certain condition or strict control. Early Collin (1988) has suggested that the content of TV should be evaluated and properly selected. In the study of Neuman and Koskinen (1992), although there showed to be a positive relationship between captioned TV and vocabulary knowledge, the TV watching process was specifically designed and controlled with the help of in-class instructions.

Also, we need to recall the comparison made between in-class instruction and outside-of-class exposure. Although there are studies suggesting the importance of outside-of-class exposure (e.g., Cubillos et al., 2008; Upshur, 1968), there's also research stating that formal instruction is more effective in terms of assisting listening comprehension (Carroll, 1967; Krashen, 1981). If the latter one is true, we can make an assumption that spending time on outside-of-class activities such as watching movies and TVs might reduce learners' time spent on class-related practices, and thus offset the potential benefit brought by outside-of-class exposure.

Regression analysis of language exposure from real life interaction. In the next group, variables representing language exposure from real life situations such as having people speaking English around or directly to you, speaking English face to face with people, or talking on the phone using English are included.

The correlation test shows that there are no significant correlations among the independent variables in this group, thus all variables are put into one regression analysis. The result is shown in Table 7.

Table 7

Regression Analysis of Language Exposure from Real Life Interaction

Dependent Variable: IMPROVEMENT		
N: 22		
Independent Variable	Coefficient	t-Statistic
C		2.500
ENGAROUND	0.736**	2.312
ENGFACETOFACE	-0.046	-0.166
ENGLISHDIRE	-1.000***	-2.952
ENGPHONE	0.200	0.914
R-squared: 0.376		

Note: An * indicates significance at an approaching level of 10%, ** indicates significance at the 5% level, and *** indicates significance at the 1% level.

As shown in the table, having people talking English around and being spoken to directly show significant correlations with participants' improvement scores at different levels. Interestingly, being spoken to directly is shown to negatively correlates with participants' improvements on their listening tests. R-squared value (≈ 0.376) shows that around 37.6% of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the whole model.

Since there are two significant independent variables shown in the regression analysis, a follow-up stepwise multiple regression is run to see how much the R-squared value increases when adding each independent variable to the model. The result of the follow-up analysis is shown in Table 8.

Table 8

Changes in R-squared Value Due to each Variable of Real Life Language Exposure Added

Model	R	R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
EngAround**	.055 ^a	.003	8.688
EngFacetoFace	.217 ^b	.047	8.715
EnglishDire***	.587 ^c	.345	7.422
EngPhone	.613 ^d	.376	7.456

From Table 8, the result shows that by adding EngAround to the model, the R-squared value increased by 0.003. At the same time, by adding EnglishDire to the model R-squared value increased from 0.047 to 0.345 (increased by 0.298). For the two variables that are significant in the model testing real life language exposure, we can see that EnglishDire explains the movement in the dependent variable more and correlates better with the dependent variable. However, it should be noted that the comparison between EngAround and

EnglishDire with respect to their contributions to the model might not be so useful because they are significant at different levels.

There are possible explanation for why EnglishDire is negatively correlating with Improvement. When thinking about activities that give learners the opportunity to listen to direct language input without responding to it, most anticipated cases are situations in which learners are given instructions, information, or notifications. In these kinds of activities, learners usually don't need to comprehend the whole passage. Rather, they only need to pay attention to key words and brief answers to meet their need. Of course, learners are practicing their strategies and proficiency in seizing key information, which is a helpful strategy in taking listening comprehension tests. But in general, this kind of practice might not be a necessary way to help improve learner's overall listening comprehension level, nor do learners necessarily need high levels of listening comprehension skills to receive instructions. According to Blanco (2002), form of exposure and level of interaction lead to different levels of comprehension. Blanco (2002) suggests that length of exposure is not necessarily an indicator of acquisition. Rather, learner's interest plays a more important role in the process of acquisition. Similarly, it has been mentioned that it is not the time exposed to language input but rather the direct involvement in language activities that brings effective improvement in language skills (Krashen, 1981). While having people talking to you directly does require your attention and some levels of comprehension, it does not always require a direct involvement or a high level of understanding. Under this assumption, time of exposure might not be the best way to measure the effect of EngDire.

Apart from the discussion of significant variables, our insignificant variables in this regression is EngFacetoFace and EngPhone. It is not surprising that speaking English over the phone is insignificant since not a significant amount of time has been invested in this activity. However, talking to people face to face is unexpectedly insignificant while it is an example of direct involvement in language activities. One thing needs to be noted here is that the method to evaluate learner's listening comprehension level is the listening comprehension test for the academic English training program. While everyday face-to-face interactions might closely relate to learners' listening comprehension of everyday conversation, its relationship with learners' in-class listening practices is shown to be insignificant.

Also, it was described in the previous section that there is a big variation in the variable of EngFacetoFace. With the least amount of time invested in the activity to be 2 hours, and the biggest number to be 80, the result might be somewhat biased resulting from the big difference among participants.

Regression analysis of language exposure through reading and writing. In the following group, language exposure through reading and writing is considered, and variables such as EngRead, EngWrite, OnlineRead, and OnlineWrite are included. The variable EngRead and OnlineRead are shown to be correlating with each other, so two separate regression analyses are run. Table 9 shows the result for the group including EngRead.

Table 9

Regression Analysis of Language Exposure through Reading and Writing Group 1

Dependent Variable: IMPROVEMENT		
N: 22		
Independent Variable	Coefficient	t-Statistic
C		2.495
ENGREAD	-0.790**	-2.624
ENGWRITE	0.503*	1.856
ONLINEWRITE	0.359	1.559
R-squared: 0.284		

Note: An * indicates significance at an approaching level of 10%, ** indicates significance at the 5% level, and *** indicates significance at the 1% level.

As shown in the table, reading English (not online) and writing in English (not online) are significantly correlating with Improvement at different levels with EngWrite only significant at an approaching level (10% significance level). R-squared value shows that the dependent variable is explained by the model by around 28.4%.

Since there are two significant variable shown in Table 9 (EngWrite is significant at an approaching level of 10%), a follow-up stepwise multiple regression analysis is run to show the changes in the R-squared value each time we add an independent variable to the model. The result of the follow-up test is shown in Table 10.

Table 10

Changes in R-squared Value Due to each Variable of Reading/Writing Language Exposure Added.

Model	R	R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
EngRead**	.279 ^a	.078	8.356
EngWrite*	.433 ^b	.188	8.045
OnlineWrite	.533 ^c	.284	7.759

Table 10 shows that by adding EngRead, R-squared value increased by 0.078 while the R-squared value increased from 0.078 to 0.188 (increased by 0.110) by adding EngWrite. This shows that although EngWrite is only significant at an approaching significance level of 10%, it correlates better with the dependent variable and explains more of the movement in the dependent variable. Again, we should keep in mind that the comparison between the two independent variables with respect to their contributions to the model only gives more details of the model. It can't be suggested that EngWrite is a better variable than EngRead in the model because EngWrite is only significant at an approaching level.

Table 11 shows the result when OnlineRead is included and EngRead eliminated.

Table 11

Regression Analysis of Language Exposure through Reading and Writing Group 2

Dependent Variable: IMPROVEMENT		
N: 22		
Independent Variable	Coefficient	t-Statistic
C		2.614
ENGWRITE	0.244	1.095
ONLINEREAD	-0.576**	-2.512
ONLINEWRITE	0.226	1.050
R-squared: 0.267		

Note: An * indicates significance at an approaching level of 10%, ** indicates significance at the 5% level, and *** indicates significance at the 1% level.

The result shows that OnlineRead significantly correlates with Improvement at 5% significance level. About 26.7% of the movement in the dependent variable can be explained by this model.

Although English reading and online English reading are both significant in this regression, it is interesting that they all have negative impacts on listening comprehension. This is not consistent with Ghaderpanahi's study in which a positive relationship between

English reading and listening skill is revealed. However, in the study of Ghaderpanahi (2012), all participants were females and they are all around age 19. In this study, the lack of demographic variables such as gender and age might have added limitations to the study and skewed the results.

Regression analysis of metacognitive awareness and self-efficacy level. In the last group, participants' performance in their MALQ and Self-efficacy questionnaires are tested and the result is shown in Table 12.

Table 12

Regression Analysis of Metacognitive Awareness and Self-efficacy Level

Dependent Variable: IMPROVEMENT		
N: 22		
Independent Variable	Coefficient	t-Statistic
C		0.312
MALQ	-0.104	-0.427
SELFEFFICACY	0.510**	2.096
R-squared: 0.213		

Note: An * indicates significance at an approaching level of 10%, ** indicates significance at the 5% level, and *** indicates significance at the 1% level.

Interestingly the result of this regression shows that, with the current data, participants' MALQ performance has no significant correlation with Improvement. On the other hand, there is a significant positive relationship between self-efficacy level and Improvement. Many previous studies have suggested a positive impact brought by metacognitive awareness to listening comprehension either directly (Coskun, 2010; Goh & Yusnita, 2006; Yang, 2009) or indirectly (Anderson, 2003; Vandergrift et al., 2006). It is surprising that in the current study, participants' metacognitive awareness level has no significant relationship with listening comprehension.

In the study of Al-Alwan et al. (2013), the questions in the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) were categorized into different categories based on their nature and each categories' relationship with listening comprehension is discussed separately. The result of the study shows that different categories of the MALQ questions have different significance shown in their model. This means that there is a possibility that some categories of the MALQ questions are significant. At the same time, the insignificance for other categories of the MALQ questions offsets the effect, and make the MALQ score as a whole not significant in the model.

Discussion

- 1. What do learners do outside of class in terms of listening? How many hours do learners invest in these activities to receive English input and to interact in English?*

Outside of class, learners reported their time invested in activities such as interacting with people around them, watching movies/videos, listening to the radio, reading, writing, and so on. Among all activities, having people speaking English around (EngAround) seems to be the most popular with a mean value equals to 23. But it could also be a result of the significant large maximum value which is 100. It turns out that although some participants devote no time to certain activities (with minimum value equals to 0), each activity has been taken by at least some participants (all maximum values are larger than 0). According to the descriptive statistics, the time different people spend on different activities ranging from 0 to 100 hours. Overall the exposure through real life practice such as authentic language environment and interaction in English are important contributors to the whole language

exposure matter (mean of EngFacetoFace equals 18 which ranks the 3rd place among all activities). The second ranked activity is watching video clips online (mean of Video equals 19).

Among all variables, it seems that the participants enjoy reading the least with the mean for EngRead equals 3. However, they do devote some time reading things in English online.

2. *Among all factors selected, what factors are most significantly correlating with learner's test scores for evaluating listening comprehension?*

Based on all the regression analyses run, EngSong, EngAround, EnglishDire, EngRead, EngWrite, OnlineRead, and SelfEfficacy seem to show significant correlations with participants' improvements made through the two listening tests with EngSong and EngWrite significant at an approaching level (at 10% significance level).

Among all activities from which learners receive language input through different forms of media such as music, TV, Movies, and video clips, listening to English songs seems to be the only variable that shows a sign of correlation with the test improvement.

Earlier in Whittaker's study (1981) which studied the benefits of applying English songs for grammar class, singing songs is suggested to be a tool for practicing listening, speaking, and reading. Jourdain (1998) also suggested a remarkable relationship between music and language learning. The two systems processing music input and language learning in the human brain complement each other in helping learners pick up new knowledge especially vocabulary knowledge (Jourdain, 1998).

In the study of Macleod and Larsson (2011) where learners' preferred outside-of-class activities were surveyed, they found listening to English songs to be one of the popular activities among learners. Learners do have different levels of preference over English songs based on their cultural background. For example, English music is generally more popular than Swedish songs among young Swedish students (Macleod & Larsson, 2011). Meanwhile, gender plays an important role in the activity of listening to songs while girls study lyrics more than boys do (Macleod & Larsson, 2011). It also mentioned that listening to music is different from other activities such as watching movies because people do not necessarily seek for translations while listening to English lyrics. But at the same time, different people do have different preferences over the habit of paying attention to lyrics.

Based on the statistical results of the current study, we have discovered some evidences of the possible relationship between listening to English songs and listening improvement. It can be suggested that teachers should consider encourage learners develop a habit of listening to English songs. Activities of listening to English songs can even be strategically applied in English classes to help learners practice listening skills according to Whittaker (1981). At the same time, future studies should devote to solve more detailed questions such as whether studying lyrics when listening to English songs is significantly more effective than not studying it. Moreover, students from different background might need different levels of encouragement to “force” English songs on them.

Apart from EngSong, other variables such as watching TV, Movies, and video clips are not significantly related learners' listening comprehension performance. Although previous studies have discovered some evidences suggesting the benefit of watching movies,

TV and video (e.g., d'Ydewalle & Pavakanun, 1997; Larsen-Freeman, 1983; Neuman & Koskinen, 1992), shortcomings of these activities are also mentioned. The appropriateness of the selected materials together with the amount of input received by learners are things that need to be considered before using movies or video clips to help improving listening skills. In this study, we differentiated watching movies with subtitles from watching movies without subtitles and made separate analysis. It turns out that neither of the two are significantly better than the other while none of them are significant in the model. Apart from the reasons listed above, watching movies with subtitles are not so effective as mentioned in previous studies (e.g., Ghasemolani & Nafissi, 2012; Jakobsdottir & Hooper, 1995; Tsai, 2009) because despite the benefit of raising the level of comprehension during the film watching process, subtitles haven't been showed to be helpful in improving learner's general comprehension level.

We have to note that the R-squared values are very small for the models containing the first group of variables, which means that these variables are not utterly plausible in explaining the dependent variable. Further studies are needed for more detailed research. Compared to the first group, the second group with variables measuring participant's language exposure through real life activities such as having people speaking English around/to them or talking directly with people in English seem to be more meaningful. Of all variables included in this group, EngAround and EnglishDire show significant relationship with the dependent variable. Although EnglishDire is negatively correlated with the dependent variable, the increase in the R-squared value by adding it shows that it explains more of the movement in the dependent variable. However the negative correlation between

EnglishDire and Improvement is different from what can be expected from the analysis since the action of being spoken to directly is considered to be one of the most important forms of direct language exposure.

We can see from the descriptive statistics that EngAround is the most popular with the mean equals to 23.02. However, a big variation in the variable does exist with a minimum value equals to 1.5 and maximum equals to 100. The result from the regression analysis shows that having people speaking English around does somewhat positively correlate with learners' listening comprehension level. This suggests that the action of studying abroad (with more opportunities of having people speaking English around you) does positively relate to learners' English study. Based on this result, it is suggested that teachers should encourage students to spend more time in places where they can have more opportunities getting involved in authentic English environment.

With R-squared equals to 0.376, the model which analyzes language exposure from real life interactions gives a better evaluation of how independent variables correlate with the dependent variable.

In the third group where language exposure through reading and writing is tested, EngRead, EngWrite, and OnlineRead are shown to be significant. Because of the high correlation between the two independent variables EngRead and OnlineRead, they are separated into two regression analyses, and only in the one with EngRead that EngWrite is shown to be significant at an approaching level of 10%. However, according to the follow-up stepwise multiple regression analysis, EngWrite explains the movement in the dependent

variable better than EngRead. Unexpectedly, both reading online and off-line activities are shown negatively correlated with the dependent variable.

In consistent with Macleod and Larsson's discovery (2011), descriptive statistics in this study suggest that reading and writing online seem to be more popular than the traditional form of reading and writing. But all of the reading and writing activities ranked the least popular among participants. Although Pickard (1996) suggests that passive activities such as reading and listening are more popular than activities involve active skills such as speaking and writing, this current study proves the situation to be otherwise. According to the descriptive statistics for independent variables, both online and off-line writing activities are more popular than reading activities, and the variable measuring English writing activities (off-line) showed some signs of positive impact on listening comprehension. It is not hard to understand why EngWrite is positively related to listening comprehension skills. As an active skill, English writing requires all aspects of English knowledge to be proficient enough for learners to produce language output. Being able to write in English should be an indicator of the level of English knowledge or at least a way of practicing integrated English skills. It is unexpected that English reading, no matter it is online or not online, appears to be negatively related to listening comprehension. Ghaderpanahi (2012) has shown evidence that reading authentic material is a way to help improve learner's listening skills, although all participants in the study are female students. One possible reason for the relationship between reading activities and listening comprehension level to be negative could be that all the casual reading caused a reduction of the amount of time devoted to other activities that may bring more effective exposure and thus affected participants' test performance. We also need to

note here that learner's reading interests don't necessarily match the realm of academic reading or listening. Learners can be proficient in reading outside-of-class materials but it does not necessarily mean that they ought to perform well in their academic tests.

Considering all reasons mentioned above, future studies should take into consideration gender influence on the relationship between reading and listening skills, and different types of reading materials with their impact on listening comprehension level.

Again, with R-squared equals to 0.267, the accuracy of the regression which analyzes language exposure through reading and writing (the second group) needs to be further tested.

3. *Will the results for Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) and Self-efficacy about Listening Skill Questionnaire show correlation with learners' listening comprehension performance?*

In the last group MALQ and Self-efficacy scores have been tested. The result shows that the score participants received for their Self-efficacy questionnaire has significantly positive correlation with the dependent variable. This result is in consistent with the findings from Vandergrift (2006) and Rahimi and Abedini (2009). It also suggests that teachers should apply methods to increase learners' self-efficacy level.

At the same time, no significant relationship is detected between MALQ score and the dependent variable while many former research discovered evidences of positive relationship between metacognitive awareness and listening comprehension level (e.g., Goh & Yusnita, 2006; Goh & Hu, 2014; Vandergrift, 1992).

However, Al-Alwan et al. (2013) did mention the different influence from separate sections of metacognitive awareness. They discovered that learner's awareness of problem

solving, planning, and directed attention are more capable of explaining listening performance than other abilities such as personal knowledge. The insignificant relationship between metacognitive awareness level and listening comprehension skill could be a result of mixed influence from different categories of metacognitive awareness. This gives us the suggestion that questions on the MALQ should be further categorized and a more detailed metacognitive awareness survey should be conducted to detect the influence from different categories of metacognitive awareness.

Overall, the model explains approximately 21.3% the movement in the dependent variable and further studies are needed for more accurate results.

Chapter 4: Limitation of the Study and Future Implication

Limitations of the Study

With a small sample size containing only 22 participants, some issues revealed in the regression analysis remain unexplained. First of all, with some independent variables being unexpectedly negative in the regression results, it is hard to tell whether it has any theoretical implications or is simply a result of sample bias. Because all R-squared values for the models are relatively small, it is hard to give much solid conclusion to the results revealed. However, there still are some significant signs of the relationship between some independent variables and the dependent variable, which sheds light on future studies with the access to more participants.

Second, the lack of demographic data together with some other important variables such as motivation and anxiety could have led to incomplete analysis. The small sample size is one reason to not collect demographic data in this study. Statistically, limited amount of independent variables is allowed due to the small sample size. Too many independent variables will create biased results if the sample size is not big enough. Also, to a small group of participants, the demographic data gives easy access to their personal information and performance, which will in turn lead to concerns about participating in the study. To ensure a more accurate result and to encourage participants to provide honest response, demographic data was not collected for this study.

Certain limitations due to the lack of demographic data can be perceived. According to previous studies (Ghaderpanahi, 2012; Lee & Oxford, 2008; Serri et al., 2012; Taylor & Geranpayeh, 2011), demographic variables such as gender are sometimes interacting with

other variables in affecting listening comprehension. This current study hasn't got the chance to look into the possible effect brought by individual differences in the sense of demographic variation. Future studies will need to consider this limitation and further detail the model design.

Thirdly, we will consider the issue of validity with self-reported questionnaire. Before taking the survey, none of the participants had systematically evaluated their outside-class activities, nor their level of metacognitive awareness and self-efficacy. For the first time of responding to this kind of survey, some misunderstanding of the questions or inaccurate evaluation of their own ability could appear and affect the result of the study. If possible, future studies will need to consider this issue and design the methodology to cope with this insufficiency.

Pedagogical Implication

Based on the results and analyses of the current study, we can make the following suggestions:

First of all, the statistical analysis suggested some positive relationships between authentic English environment and listening improvement. This supports the advantage of learners learning a second language in the authentic language environment. At the same time, even when learners are learning a second language in countries where the target language is used, teachers should encourage learners to go out more and seek the opportunities of exposing themselves to the language environment. Also, teachers can encourage more interactions using target language in language classes to create more opportunities for learners to get involved in the language environment.

Second, learners can be encouraged to develop a habit of listening to English songs because the model showed signs that the activity of listening to English songs is positively correlated with listening improvement. It is hard to decide at this point that which kind of listening or which kind of songs should be encourage, but helping learners to develop a healthy and fun habit of exposing themselves to English input is a good way to start the language exposure process. In-class activities can be organized to involve students in the processes of song listening and lyrics study. This kind of activities should always aim at developing learners' autonomous interests in song listening.

Third, instructors should always be careful with recommending movies and TVs to students. The data analysis of the current study suggests that it is not any kinds of movie/TV watching are in a positive relationship with listening comprehension improvements. While no significant relationships are discovered between movie/TV watching and listening comprehension in the current study, previous studies did suggest some positive effect of movies and TVs under conditions of controlled content and teacher instructions (Collin, 1988; Neuman & Koskinen, 1992). This suggests that not all kinds of movie/TV watching are guaranteed to be beneficial for the development of English skills.

Finally, instructors should be prepared to help learners increase their self-efficacy level. The self-efficacy survey conducted in this study suggested that learners' reported self-efficacy level is relatively low or at least they are not very confident in their listening skills. A positive relationship between self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness have been discovered (Rahimi and Abedi, 2009; Vandergrift, 2006). Some studies have suggested a positive relationship between metacognitive awareness and self-efficacy (e.g., Rahimi and Abedi,

2009; Vandergrift, 2006). Others have suggested ways to help improve learners' self-efficacy level. For example, studies have suggested using metacognitive strategy instruction to improve listening self-efficacy (Graham, 2011; Rahimi & Abedi, 2009; Rahimirad and Zare-ee 2015). Graham (2011) suggests that through strategy use instruction, learners can increase their control over listening process and improve their self-efficacy level. Similarly, Rahimirad and Zare-ee (2015) showed that by applying the metacognitive strategy instruction model developed by Vandergrift (2002), learner's self-efficacy level was significantly improved. Also, task-based listening activities can help learners increase their awareness of strategy use and feel more confident in their ability of controlling the listening process. In the study of Motallebzadeh and Defaei (2013), the group of students who received task-based listening activities showed higher levels of self-efficacy than the control group. Based on previous findings, it is crucial for teachers to instruct learners to participate more in listening tasks and apply metacognitive strategy instructions to help them enhance their strategy use and the awareness of their own abilities.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

It has always been a popular topic discovering factors correlating with second language learners' test performance and the indicated improvement in language skills. Previous studies have been devoted to build up theoretical base for the discussion of factors correlating with listening skills. Rubin (1994) has developed an ongoing dialogue of research in this area. In the study of Vandergrift (1992), learners' ability in applying metacognitive strategies showed positive effect on language proficiency level. Further, Goh and Hu (2014) suggested that listening performance is significantly affected by learner's metacognitive awareness.

Other than metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy is also considered as an important contributor to language performance. The statistic study of Rahimi and Abedini (2009) showed a positive relationship between self-efficacy and listening comprehension. Above all, the topic gradually gains popularity in this research area is whether learners' outside-of-class activities have any positive relationships to their listening skills. Several studies have helped summarizing most representing outside-of-class activities for language learners nowadays such as television, internet, radio, music, L2 interaction, book/magazine/newspaper, and movie watching in theatres (Lindgren & Muñoz, 2013; Macleod & Larsson, 2011; Pearson, 2003). Other studies have suggested some benefits of these outside-of-class activities (e.g., Beasley & Chuang, 2006; Lindgren & Muñoz, 2013; Tsai, 2009;), and the current study has brought together the variables discussed individually before to perform a regression analysis to test their correlations with learners' test performance of listening skills.

The results show some evidences on the positive relationships between listening and some activities such as listening to English songs, having people speaking English around, English writing, and online English reading. But the sample size for the current study is relatively small. The small R-squared values for the regression models show that there are still problems with the accuracy and solidity of the results. Nevertheless, the current study does give some ideas and directions for future studies to consider when conducting statistical analysis on a larger scale.

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Appendix A: Outside-of-Class Communication Activity Questionnaire

During last week:

1. How many hours that you had people speaking English directly to you? Provide a number.

_____hour(s)

2. How many hours that you had people speaking English around you (not directly involving you in the conversation)? Provide a number.

_____hour(s)

3. How many hours did you spend on watching English movies with subtitles? Provide a number.

_____hour(s)

4. How many hours did you spend on watching English movies without subtitles? Provide a number.

_____hour(s)

5. How many hours did you spend on listening to English songs? Provide a number.

_____hour(s)

6. How many hours did you spend on watching TV series and/or cartoons in English? Provide a number.

_____hour(s)

7. How many hours did you spend on talking to people face-to-face in English? Provide a number.

_____hour(s)

8. How many hours did you spend on talking on the phone in English? Provide a number.

_____hour(s)

9. How many hours did you spend on online writing (texting, writing E-mails, writing a blog, and etc.)? Provide a number.

_____hour(s)

10. How many hours did you spend on writing in English by hand (except doing your homework)? Provide a number.

_____hour(s)

11. How many hours did you do online reading in English (readings that are not relevant to your school work)? Provide a number.

_____hour(s)

12. How many hours did you spend on reading magazines/books/newspapers (not online)?

Provide a number.

_____hour(s)

13. How many hours did you spend on watching video clips in English on the internet?

Provide a number.

_____hour(s)

Appendix B: Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ)

The statements below describe some strategies for listening comprehension and how you feel about listening in the language you are learning. Do you agree with them? This is not a test, so there are no “right” or “wrong” answers. By responding to these statements, you can help yourself and your teacher understand your progress in learning to listen. Please indicate your opinion after each statement. Circle the number which best shows your level of agreement with the statement. For example:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Partly agree	Agree	Strongly agree			
	1	2	3	4	5	6			
like learning another language.									
1. Before I start to listen, I have a plan in my head for how I am going to listen.				1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I focus harder on the text when I have trouble understanding.				1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I find that listening is more difficult than reading, speaking, or writing in English.				1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I translate in my head as I listen.				1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I use the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I don't understand.				1	2	3	4	5	6
6. When my mind wanders, I recover my concentration right away.				1	2	3	4	5	6
7. As I listen, I compare what I understand with what I know about the topic.				1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I feel that listening comprehension in English is a challenge for me.				1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I use my experience and knowledge to help me understand.				1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Before listening, I think of similar texts that I may have listened to.				1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I translate key words as I listen.				1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.				1	2	3	4	5	6
13. As I listen, I quickly adjust my interpretation if I realize that it is not correct.				1	2	3	4	5	6
14. After listening, I think back to how I listened, and about what I might do differently next time.				1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I don't feel nervous when I listen to English.				1	2	3	4	5	6
16. When I have difficulty understanding what I hear, I give up and stop listening.				1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I use the general idea of the text to help me guess the meaning of the words that I don't understand.				1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I translate word by word, as I listen.				1	2	3	4	5	6
19. When I guess the meaning of a word, I think back to everything else that I have heard, to see if my guess makes sense.				1	2	3	4	5	6
20. As I listen, I periodically ask myself if I am satisfied with my level of comprehension.				1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I have a goal in mind as I listen.				1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix C: Self-efficacy about Listening Skill Questionnaire

	Strongly agree	Agree	I don't know	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. I have a special ability for improving listening skill.					
2. In a listening practice, although I understand almost every word, the big problem is that I do not have the ability to keep all of them in my mind.					
3. I believe that my proficiency in listening will improve very soon.					
4. I believe that if I practice listening more I will get better grades in the course.					
5. I cannot understand an English film without subtitles in my own language.					
6. My listening teacher thinks that I am smart.					
7. I can find a strategy to answer most of the related questions even when I can't understand the listening materials completely.					
8. I am one of the best students in our listening course.					
9. My classmates usually get better grades than I do.					
10. I enjoy talking to foreign people using English.					
11. I enjoy doing listening practice when the speaker speaks fast.					
12. The more difficult the listening practice is, the more challenging and enjoyable it is.					
13. I enjoy doing listening practice with a proficient partner.					
14. I can understand the audio recordings in listening classes better than other students.					
15. No one cares if I do well in listening course.					
16. In the listening class, when the teacher asks a question I raise my hand to answer it even though I am not sure about it.					
17. I am very stressful during the listening classes.					
18. I have the ability to concentrate on the content to which I listen.					