敘事性聽力訓練對於高中生敘事性和非敘事性聽力理解的成效

Effectiveness of Fiction Listening Practice on High School Students'

Fiction and Nonfiction Listening Comprehension

by

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敘事性聽力訓練對於高中生敘事性和非敘事性聽力理解的成效

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摘要

第二外語學習者在學習一個新的語言時，通常是透過閱讀或者是聆聽敘事性和非敘事性的文章。很多的証據指出閱讀或者是聽敘事性的文章能幫助第二外語學習者增加他們的字彙和理解力。愈來愈多的研究主張不論是敘事性的文章或非敘事性的文章在語言學習過程中都扮演著重要的角色，尤其在真實的世界裡，人們需要擁有各種不同的技能，比如說，讀懂或聽懂各種不同型式的非敘事性文章。但是在一般的第二語言學習環境裡，大部份都是敘事性的文章。由於第二語言學習者己經習慣閱讀或聽敘事性的文章，第二語言學習者是否能只閱讀或聽敘事性文章的經驗進而幫助理解非敘事性文章，則沒有肯定的答案。

本研究旨在探討敘事性的聽力訓練對於整體聽力(敘事性和非敘事性聽力)理解的成效。4個班級總共142位的高中二級學生參與此項研究。二個班級為實驗組，另外二個班級則為對照組。實驗組的學生會接受敘事性的聽力訓練長達4個月的時間，對照組則沒有接受任何的聽力訓練。所有的學生不論是否有接受敘事性的聽力訓練，他們都會先完成一份前測聽力考試，4個月後完成一份後測聽

力考試。

　　本項研究採用三個成對樣本 T 檢定檢測學生經過敘事性的聽力訓練對於學生整體的聽力、敘事性和非敘事性聽力的成效。另外二個獨立樣本 T 檢定是了解實驗組學生的敘事性或非敘事性聽力的進步幅度是否明顯比控制組的學生好。共變數分析則是進一步了解學生敘事性聽力進步的變化。研究分析結果顯示敘事性的聽力訓練有助於非敘事性的聽力理解力，但是，學生敘事性聽力的進步，則沒有定論，因為原本前測分數考的比較好的學生，他們在後測並沒有明顯的進步。也就是敘事性的聽力訓練並沒有幫助原本在實驗前聽力比較好的學生。最後，學生若沒有接受任何的聽力訓練，他們的聽力理解力不會有任何進步。

關鍵字：敘事性文章，非敘事性文章，文體類型，聽力理解，閱讀理解

Effectiveness of Fiction Listening Practice on High School Students'

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ABSTRACT

L2 learners are supposed to acquire a new language through either reading or listening to both fiction and nonfiction texts. Scholars have accumulated evidence that reading and listening to fiction helps learners increase their L2 comprehension and vocabulary. A growing number of studies have contended that learning to extract information from nonfiction texts is as important as, if not more important than, understanding fiction content. In the real world, people need a greater variety of skills to comprehend nonfiction texts in both written and spoken forms, since L2 learning materials are generally fictitious in nature. While L2 learners are accustomed to reading and listening to fiction, it remains uncertain whether experience with fiction benefits nonfiction comprehension.

The purpose of the current study is to investigate whether listening to fiction alone improves overall listening comprehension (fiction and nonfiction listening comprehension). The participants were 142 11th-grade students from four classes. Two

classes were assigned to be experimental groups while the other two classes were assigned to be control groups. The participants of the experimental groups received fiction listening training during four months, but the participants of the control groups did not. The Participants of both the experimental groups and control groups completed a pretest at the beginning of the study and a posttest at the end of training.

Three paired-samples t-tests were administered to investigate the effectiveness of fiction listening training on participants overall listening comprehension, and fiction and nonfiction listening comprehension. Then, two independent-samples t-tests were used to determine whether the experimental group's fiction or nonfiction listening comprehension improved more than the control group's. An ANCOVA further investigated participants' fiction listening comprehension improvements between the experimental and control groups.

The results of the current study revealed that the participants' overall listening comprehension, more specifically nonfiction listening comprehension, improved because of the fiction listening training. The degree of fiction listening improvement remained inconclusive because participants who achieved higher scores on the pretest did not make significant improvement on the posttest. The fiction listening treatment did not contribute greatly to participants who seemed to have better listening ability at the beginning of the study. Finally, the participants who received no listening training

did not show an improvement of their listening comprehension.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The importance of reading nonfiction in both L1 and L2 classrooms is gradually being emphasized by educators. Exposing students to nonfiction texts broadens their knowledge and helps them have better academic achievements. While many educators are exploring the effects of text structure—that is, fiction or nonfiction—on reading comprehension, the effects of text structure on listening comprehension of L1 and L2 students have not been examined to date. A possible reason why L1 listening text structure has not attracted much attention could be that L1 learners' listening ability has been developed since they were born and they are exposed to all kinds of texts aurally every day. However, the situation for L2 learning is not similar to that of L1 learners. The researcher of the current study will explore the effects of text structure on L2 listening comprehension. The following sections of this chapter pertain to the background and purpose of the study, the research questions, and a definition of terms. Lastly, the significance of the study is presented.

1.1 Background of the Study

People naturally listen to their native language without difficulties or problems and take listening comprehension for granted. Listening seems to be a passive activity

and the least important language skill in an L1 environment. However in an L2

environment, listening is an active skill in which learners need to make a lot of effort

to discriminate sounds, recognize vocabulary, use a variety of knowledge, and

understand the speakers' intention (Osada, 2004; Tohsaku, 2008; Vandergrift, 1999,

2003; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012b). Furthermore, "aural input plays an essential role in

second language learning and acquisition, and research has shown that a major

difference between more and less successful learners lies in their ability to use

listening as a means of acquisition" (Vandergrift, 1999, as cited in Chang, 2009, p.

652). For L2 learners, good listening skills is vital in the language classroom and daily

life because listening is an important channel for receiving various information such

as news, radio programs, announcements, and lectures. Listening is decidedly a

critical skill for L2 learners (Tohsaku, 2008).

Similarly, reading is another important channel which is used to receive

information and expand knowledge (Grabe, 2009b; Koda, 2004). Most people read

some kinds of printed texts every day. They read magazines, newspapers,

advertisements, and other various forms of written texts. In professional, educational or

occupational settings, people need to read, interpret and sometimes synthesize

information they have found within any text (Grabe, 2009b). Reading is indeed a

necessary skill that must be developed and strengthened throughout a person's life.

Therefore, students in elementary school are encouraged to read as much as possible. However, at that stage, most of what they read consists of fiction texts.

As U.S. elementary school students advance to the sixth grade, more than 75% of assigned reading materials shift from fiction texts to nonfiction texts (Moss, 2004, as cited in Hall & Sabye, 2007). In Chall, Jacobs, and Baldwin's (1990, as cited in Yopp & Yopp, 2006) study, it was pointed out that the reading performance of these students was unsatisfactory compared to their performances in the second and third grades. This is referred to as the "fourth-grade slump". Upon uncovering this lull in reading progress, researchers have increasingly become aware of students' limited exposure to nonfiction texts (Duke, 2000; Yopp & Yopp, 2006). Duke (2000) found that students spent merely an average of 3.6 minutes on reading informational texts activities per school day. Yopp and Yopp (2006) explored the percentage of informational texts used at school and home and confirmed that informational texts were scarce in both environments.

Therefore, educators have started to more strongly emphasize the importance of exposing students to nonfiction texts at younger levels. Duke & Bennett-Armistead (2003) argued that students should be exposed to informational texts earlier and more frequently. First, if students are exposed to informational texts earlier, they may be better equipped to handle the more advanced nonfiction texts they encounter as they

move through later schooling. Also, informational texts are ubiquitous in our society, wherein people encounter these types of texts everywhere, such as workplaces, homes, and community settings. Furthermore, not all students are fond of fiction texts. Every student has their own preferences. Some students prefer spending time reading and writing about informational texts over reading and writing about fiction texts. Offering various types of texts encourages students to read more often and learn more efficiently.

In conclusion, exposing students to nonfiction texts at earlier ages offers them a way to improve their overall reading comprehension, because different types of texts provide them with multiple ways of learning. Both fiction and nonfiction texts help students to broaden their knowledge, ultimately assisting them in achieving success in the "real world". By the same token, even if listening skills for L1 learners have not been accentuated, good listening skills for L2 learners are necessary. With better listening comprehension of various text types such as fiction or nonfiction, L2 learners are then able to receive and interact with more language input.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Exposing students to nonfiction texts becomes decidedly essential to a certain extent in the early grades given that an early introduction to such texts better enhances

their ability to manage increasing amount of the nonfiction texts they will encounter in their later education. In the field of L1 research, text structure is one of the factors affecting learners' reading comprehension. Without proper training and awareness, nonfiction texts may present L1 learners with some daunting challenges. Grabe (2009a) contended that the structures of specific texts convey particular information to readers. Therefore, in order to facilitate the comprehension of reading nonfiction texts in the L1, readers need to read this type of material extensively and frequently. Remarkably, these researchers interested in L2 reading, Kuo, Chiang, and Xie (2008) found that the same issues related to nonfiction reading comprehension are present in an L2 classroom. Unlike L1 reading, L1 listening do not seem to encounter similar challenges.

During the listening process, L1 learners are able to overcome listening difficulties by relying on their cultural background knowledge or their underlying subconscious linguistic and syntactic knowledge, which they have been unconsciously acquired since they were born. After birth, L1 learners' listening ability develops rapidly during the early years of childhood. Given L1 learners' specific learning environments, L1 learners are able to successfully develop their listening ability to all kinds of texts with little effort (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005).

L2 learners, on the other hand, need to make a deliberate effort to understand

and interpret what they hear (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012b).

Listening can be an arduous task for L2 learners. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) found that linguistic knowledge, discourse knowledge, background knowledge, anxiety, and motivation among other things were factors influencing L2 learners' listening ability.

Although most researchers have found that a variety of factors influence L2 learners' listening ability, few researchers point out whether specific text structures such as fiction and nonfiction constitute influential factors which affect L2 learners' listening comprehension.

1.3 Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

Since nonfiction text comprehension is important in schooling, L2 students need to make sure they can understand informational texts. It is therefore necessary to explore the relationship between listening ability with fiction and nonfiction texts when training is limited to works of fiction. However, most of early L2 listening texts are fictional in nature. The purpose of the current study is to explore whether training Taiwanese EFL students in listening to fiction also facilitates their nonfiction listening ability. The present study aims to answer the following research questions:

RQ 1: Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants perform significantly better in the listening comprehension test that requires both

fiction and nonfiction listening comprehension than those who do not receive the

training

RQ 2: Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants

improve their fiction listening comprehension?

RQ 3: Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants

improve significantly more than those who do not receive the training in fiction

listening comprehension test?

RQ 4: Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants

improve their nonfiction listening comprehension?

RQ 5: Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants

improve significantly more than those who do not receive the training in nonfiction

listening comprehension test?

1.4 Significance of the Study

As noted earlier, it has been found that the nonfiction texts play an important

role in reading development. This is particularly true for students after the 4th grade.

However, little research has specifically focused on listening to nonfiction texts. The

goal of this study is to shed light on the efficacy of fictional listening training on

fiction and nonfiction listening comprehension. Additionally, a newly-developed

assessment instrument for analyzing listening comprehension has been developed in

this study. The instrument may serve as a tool for examining learners' listening ability

in fiction and nonfiction texts. This study may also raise awareness among EFL

teachers that the benefits of listening to nonfiction texts are as significant as those

associated with listening to fiction.

1.5 Definition of Terms

Fiction text

Fiction texts are descriptions of events in imaginary stories. Pappas (1993)

defines fiction texts as fictional and have story structures. In the present study, fiction

is synonymous with narrative.

Non-fiction

Non-fiction is the opposite of fiction. Non-fiction texts depict factual or

historical events or deliver information about the natural world. Nonfiction does not

include fictional narrations (Duke & Bennett-Armistead, 2003). In the current study,

the terms non-narrative, informational, and expository texts are interchangeable.

Listening Comprehension

Listening comprehension consists of various processes, such as understanding

speech, intonation, vocabulary and grammatical structures. Its immediate

interpretation of all information that has been audibly received is required under the

confines of listening comprehension (Vandergrift, 1999).

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

When second language learners are frequently exposed to the target language, they increase their vocabulary and improve their listening and reading comprehension. However, L2 learners' comprehension of spoken and written texts may be impeded by some factors. In research related to reading, researchers have found that reading comprehension of different text structures requires different skills, wherein listening skills required comprehending nonfiction texts have to be taught deliberately. To date, limited research has been applied to listening comprehension, and the necessity of the text-structure specific listening skills seems unknown. This chapter first presents factors influencing reading comprehension and then factors influencing listening comprehension. Finally, research related to comparing fiction and nonfiction reading is reviewed because understanding the differences of text structures may shed light on the presence of varying listening skills.

2.1 Factors Influencing Reading Comprehension

Reading is a useful and simple way to improve the language proficiency. In everyday life, both children and adults receive information or broaden knowledge through texts, such as the newspaper, instruction manuals, technical texts, maps and so

forth (Pang et al., 2003).

As part of the complex reading process, learners must recognize words, make sense of sentences and connections within the text, they also utilize their background knowledge and knowledge of grammatical structure to help them understand written texts (Pang, Muaka, Bernbardt, & Kamil, 2003). As defined by Koda (2004b), "Reading comprehension occurs when the reader extracts and integrates various information from the text and combines it with what is already known" (p. 4). These descriptions about reading activities are true with both first language and second language readers.

However, negative factors impeding first language readers may influence the second language learners' reading comprehension more greatly. Those factors include word recognition, vocabulary knowledge and size, syntactic knowledge, and text structure (Grabe, 2009b; Koda, 2004; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012b). The impacts of those factors on reading comprehension are illustrated as follows.

Firstly, learners have to be able to extract the lexical information from words, the most basic units of a reading passage, and apply the meaning of different words to comprehend a sentence, a paragraph, and the multiple-paragraph passage. It is a "process of obtaining words' sounds and meanings, and decoding deals specifically with the extraction of phonological information" (Koda, 2004, p. 29).

Word recognition has two related but distinct processes: understanding the meaning of a word and extracting its sound. Learners' capability to obtain phonological information is the key to their reading comprehension as well as reading proficiency. Although the purpose of word recognition is to understand the meaning of words, phonological decoding involving accessing, storing, and manipulating phonological information take place simultaneously (Torgesen & Burgess, 1998, as cited in Koda, 2004).

Word recognition is strongly relevant to reading comprehension (Nakamoto, Lindsey, & Manis, 2007; Vellutino, Tunmer, Jaccard, & Chen, 2007). It is an indicator of both vocabulary knowledge and reading proficiency. Learners need to integrate lexical and contextual information to interpret sentences. Thus, retrieving word information and choosing the appropriate meaning of words efficiently in accordance with context facilitate reading comprehension (Koda, 2004).

The second factor influencing learners' reading comprehension is the comprehension of the word meaning. Anderson and Nagy (1991) described two dimensions of word meaning knowledge: denotation and connotation. The denotation of a word refers to the literal meaning of it that can be easily found in the dictionary. For example, the word *snake* in a dictionary shows denotative meaning of long thin animals with no legs with some of them being poisonous. In contrast, connotation

refers to the word's implied meaning because of positive or negative associations made

from the context in which it occurs. The connotation of words depends on its contexts

and may vary from reader to reader. The connotation for the word *snake* could include

evil or danger. These two dimensions of word meaning knowledge display how written

texts are understood by readers.

Unlike Anderson and Nagy, Nation (2001) approached word meaning in three

dimensions: *form*, *meaning* and *use*. *Form* means the knowledge of "words' spoken and

written forms"; *use* is "collocational behavior, grammatical functions, and usage

constraints"; *meaning* refers to "connection between the word's form and meaning as

well as the relationship between the concept represented and its referents" (p. 27).

Although researchers defined *word meaning* differently, learners need to know

word meanings when they read written texts. Learners' reading comprehension may

vary when what they know about the word differs. Research has demonstrated the

strong relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension.

Increasing vocabulary knowledge plays a crucial role in increasing reading

comprehension (Lervåg & Aukrust, 2010; Proctor, August, Carlo, & Snow, 2006; Qian,

1999; Rydland, Aukrust, & Fulland, 2010).

Furthermore, the size of vocabulary also has a strong impact on learners reading

comprehension. Researchers indicated that pleasure reading occurs if ESL learners

understand more than 98% text-word coverage (Hirsh & Nation, 1992; Hsueh-Chao & Nation, 2000; Koda, 2004). Hu and Nation (2000) found that if the research participants understand only 95% text-word coverage, only one-third of them could fairly understood the text scoring 12 out of 14. None of the subjects in their study comprehended the text when they only knew 80% text-word coverage. Thus, learners need to understand the majority of words in a text to have good reading comprehension.

Thirdly, although learners may complain that long words are hard to read, during comprehension process, word length does not heavily affect readers' reading comprehension (Anderson& Davison, 1998, as cited in Koda, 2004b) because long words sometimes can be broken down through analysis of their morphemes or meaningful constituents. Readers are able to understand them because they know how to deconstruct long words. Word length, therefore, does not cause reading comprehension breakdown.

It is often assumed that long and complex sentences make reading comprehension difficult. Research suggests, however, that these two variables—sentence length and syntactic complexity—are not necessarily related to reading comprehension. In fact, longer sentences or syntactic complexity does not deter reading comprehension. Koda (2004b) indicated that syntactic complexity might cause learners to spend more time processing the sentence, but that it would not hinder

reader's comprehension difficulty. A syntactically complex construction like relative clauses provided more information for readers to understand the semantic content in the sentence (Biber, 1998, as cited in Koda, 2004b). Therefore, neither sentence length nor syntactic complexity caused a breakdown of reading comprehension.

Koda (2004b) further pointed out that readers integrate word information into the sentence and decide the overall sentence meaning after readers recognize, decode and activate their knowledge of vocabulary. Basic syntactic knowledge has a larger effect on L2 readers' reading comprehension than on L1 readers' since L1 readers have already acquired the basic syntactic knowledge before they begin to read. L2 readers begin to read before they have fully acquired the syntactic knowledge. Without sufficient syntactic knowledge, readers process sentences slowly and inaccurately. By the same token, "syntactic complexity—such as lack of structural transparency, violation of portotypicality, and ambiguity—also generates comprehension problems" (p. 258).

In addition to lexical and syntactic elements, text structure is another factor that affects readers' reading comprehension. Grabe (2009) contends that text structure is "specific patterns and systems of text organization that reflect the goals of the writers, the purposes of specific texts, and the expectations of skilled readers" (p. 248). The specific text structure conveys particular and essential information to readers. Since

text structure presents dissimilar types of discourse structure, if readers fail to notice the features of different structures, their comprehension of the written texts will be affected. Thus, being aware of text structures facilitates readers' reading comprehension (Grabe, 2009; Koda, 2004). The role that text structures play in reading comprehension is paramount, for each text variety holds discourse in a form of its own. Good readers know how to identify the structure-specific characteristics of each structure germane to their reading needs. For example, when students read narrative or expository texts, their comprehension is directly related to their capability to recognize features of the relative genre (Alexander & Jetton, 2000; Grabe, 2009).

As noted above, the degree to which readers understand the written texts is attributed to factors, such as word recognition, vocabulary knowledge, syntactic knowledge, and text structure. If readers understand these four factors better, they can improve their comprehension of written texts. In the next section, factors associated with aural comprehension obstacles are reviewed.

2.2 Factors influencing Listening Comprehension

People spend more time listening in their daily life. As noted by Gilman and Moody (1984), "Adults spend 40-50% of their communication time listening, 25-30% speaking, 11-16% reading, and only about 9% writing" (p. 331). It is further contended

that listening comprehension is not just a passive activity but also a complicated and interactive process. When listeners receive the target language texts, they have to discriminate the sounds, recognize the vocabulary and basic syntactic patterns, and use world knowledge to comprehend the aural message (Mendelsohn, 1994; Osada, 2004; Vandergrift, 1999, 2003; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012b).

Teachers and scholars increasingly understand that listening plays a critical role in language learning (Richards, 2008; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012b). They also have realized that listening is a skill that, if taught specifically, can facilitate language learning (Richards, 2003; Vandergrift, 1999). Listening ability is relevant to language learning; that is, listening is an important source of learning a language (Feyten, 1991). There are several factors related to learners' listening comprehension. The following sections attempts to elucidate what factors primarily affect learners' listening comprehension.

2.2.1 Cognitive Factors

Teachers usually seek to find factors that influence learning. More specifically, they want to identify factors that are associated with successful learning. This section will discuss cognitive factors such as vocabulary, syntactic knowledge, discourse knowledge and background knowledge affecting L2 learners' listening success.

First, vocabulary is typically regarded as a crucial element for listening comprehension. Second language learners think knowing more vocabulary helps them comprehend aural texts better. Mecartty (2000) conducted a research to explore whether vocabulary and grammatical knowledge contributed to language learners' reading and listening comprehension. Participants in the study were assigned to the reading and listening groups. All of the participants had to complete vocabulary and grammatical knowledge tests. Participants in both the reading group and listening group needed to answer multiple-choice questions after reading two passages. The results showed grammatical knowledge was related to reading and listening comprehension, but it was not considerably contributed to listening comprehension. On the other hand, vocabulary knowledge was identified as a crucial factor influence learners' reading and listening comprehension. Although vocabulary knowledge was attributed to both reading and listening comprehension, the amount of variance in reading and listening comprehension affected by vocabulary knowledge was not the same. According to Mecartty, vocabulary knowledge appeared to be more conducive to the reading comprehension than to listening comprehension.

Staehr (2009) also investigated the relationship between vocabulary and listening comprehension. The results indicated that participants mastering different vocabulary levels showed the different variance in the listening test scores. Out of the

112 participants, the first group of 56 participants mastering below the 5000 word level scored 54 or higher in the listening test while the second group of 56 participants mastering above 5000 word level scored 73 or higher. A further analysis of the listening scores showed that 27 of the first group of 56 participants were able to obtain a listening test score of 60 or higher even though they fell below the 5000 word level on their vocabulary measure. Therefore, listening success is not solely attributed to vocabulary size.

Secondly, syntactic knowledge is not a strong predictor of reading and listening comprehension, either, although syntactic knowledge also plays a significant role in overall L2 learning. Conrad (1985) had hypothesized that native English-speakers or advanced learners instead of beginning-level learners would pay more attention to semantic cues than linguistic cues. The results of some later studies (Mecartty, 2000; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012a) corroborated Conrad's hypothesis. In other words, advanced learners were able to notice semantic cues and process language deeply; lower-level learners were only able to notice syntactic cues and process what they heard of the language itself.

Next, academic listening success requires learners to notice signaling cues such as "preview, summarizers, emphasis markers and logical connectives" in an academic listening context (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 77). To understand academic listening

texts aurally, listeners have to be familiar with general macro and micro characteristics of academic texts (Young, 1994, as cited in Vandergrift & Goh, 2012), which is often referred to as discourse knowledge with its definition being "awareness of the type of information found in listening texts, how that information might be organized, and how listeners can use the information to facilitate comprehension" (p. 77).

Last but not the least, listeners utilize prior knowledge to interpret what they heard by listening. Prior knowledge refers to language learners' life experience and their conceptual knowledge. One important empirical study (Long, 1990, as cited in Vandergrift & Goh, 2012) indicated prior knowledge is a strong predictor of listening comprehension. The participants were Spanish learners listening to two different texts: an unfamiliar text (the Ecaudor gold rush) and a familiar text (the rock group U2). Before the test, all of the participants needed to finish a background questionnaire on their knowledge of these two topics. As the researcher predicted, participants had more rock group U2 (90 percent) prior knowledge about than about gold rush (69 percent). Then, participants had to listen to the texts. After participants finished listening to the texts twice, they summarized what they heard. Participants' written summaries displayed 53 percent for the gold rush text and 68 percent for the rock group U2. With sufficient prior knowledge, listeners are able to compensate for what they do not while listening.

2.2.2 Affective Factors

After some cognitive factors related to L2 learners' listening success are introduced, affective factors such as anxiety and self-efficacy may cause listening failure as well. The affective factors influence how learners perform the listening activity and their listening success. The following section explores how the role of two affective factors has an impact on L2 learners.

Anxiety generally makes learners feel nervous and have lower self-efficacy. Foreign or second language educators have noticed the role of anxiety and its potential negative effect on language learners (Elkhafaifi, 2005; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Higher listening anxiety caused lower listening comprehension performance. The relationship between listening anxiety and listening proficiency has been proven significant (Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006, as cited in Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Although higher anxiety leads to lower listening proficiency, appropriate anxiety sometimes can facilitate learners' listening comprehension because learners tend to be more concentrated on listening to the texts and achieve learners' potential.

It is important to note that anxiety leads to a lower level of L2 listeners' confidence and self-efficacy (i.e., beliefs about their ability to handle with the specific situation) (Graham, 2006; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012a). With high self-efficacy, L2 learners would not attribute their failure to some factors beyond their control and they

are willing to participate in listening activities they have encountered (Bandura, 1993; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012a).

To sum up, listening comprehension could be affected by both cognitive and affective factors. Either cognitive factors or affective factors may contribute to variance of L2 learners' listening comprehension. Understanding of such factors discussed above helps educators improve teaching efficacy when better listening comprehension is the objective.

2.3 Nonfiction Texts

As discussed above, text genre is one of the factors that influence readers' reading comprehension. Two major text structures are fiction and nonfiction texts. In the last two decades, fiction texts have been the predominant text structure in the early grades, and children have mainly received training of reading fiction texts since fiction texts are connected to children's shared knowledge of the world. In contrast, little attention was given to reading nonfiction texts though nonfiction reading is vital to develop children's knowledge about the world and it is a good way to improve language proficiency and vocabulary acquisition.

The researcher of the current study has located a large number of studies conducted in the past 15 years that addressed the importance of nonfiction texts

(Atkinson, Matusevich, & Huber, 2009; Benson, 2003; Caswell & Duke, 1998; Donovan & Smolkin, 2001, 2002; Duke, 2000, 2003, 2004; Duke & Bennett-Armistead, 2003; Duke & Kays, 1998; Hall & Sabey, 2007; Harvey, 2002; Kraemer, 2008; Maloch, 2008; Pappas, 1993; Pentimonti, Zucker, Justice, & Kaderavek, 2010; Webster, 2009; Williams, et al., 2005; Yopp & Yopp, 2000, 2006). In light of the fact that approximately 96% of texts on the World Wide Web are expository (Kamil & Lane, 1998, as cited in Duke & Bennett-Armistead, 2003), adults have to be able to deal with a great deal of nonfiction texts (Atkinson, et al., 2009; Harvey, 2002; Smith, 2000; Venezky, 2000).

Therefore developing reading and listening to nonfiction texts is critical for students since "the ability to access, sift, evaluate, and synthesize a variety of information on the Internet is integral to school success and survival in the workplace" (Schmar-Dobler, 2003, as cited in Choi, 2010, p. 435). Since nonfiction texts such as textbooks, trade books, Internet Web sites, newspapers, magazines, and other resources are pervasive in society, it should not be too difficult to draw children's attention to the nonfiction texts around them in their world (Duke & Bennett-Armistead, 2003; Sanacore & Palumbo, 2009).

Many students receive fiction text reading training during the first grade to the fourth grade. However, as students advance to sixth grade, more than 75% of school

reading involves nonfiction texts (Moss, 2004, as cited in Hall & Sabye, 2007). It is

during this period between the 4th and 6th grades that students' reading achievement

slope when compared to their 2nd and 3rd grade performance, a phenomena which

researchers call the "fourth-grade slump" (Chall, Jacobs, & Baldwin, 1990, as cited in

Yopp & Yopp, 2000, p. 410). It seems students could have been exposed to nonfiction

texts, particularly in the earlier grades, the capacity to deal with nonfiction texts in

later schooling might improve.

Duke and Bennett-Armistead (2003) suggested nonfiction texts be an option for

reading program in elementary schools. Their studies showed that students have their

different reading preferences. Some students enjoy reading fictions; some prefer

learning about what really happens in the real world. According to the study, fiction

texts were not appealing to some students, nonfictions texts are recommended to

provide reluctant students opportunities to have more reading experiences. Students

not only increase their reading motivation, but also build comprehension skills. It is

hope that reading nonfiction texts can be a catalyst for children's overall literacy

development (Caswell & Duke, 1998).

According to Caswell and Duke (1998) and Duke and Bennett-Armistead

(2003), reading nonfiction texts can build students' knowledge of the world. During

the reading process, their background knowledge facilitates the comprehension of the

subsequent texts. After a considerable amount of reading, enriched comprehension

helps them become skilled readers. Lastly, as pointed out earlier in the literature

review, listening or reading fiction texts can be a common source of vocabulary

acquisition. Reading nonfiction texts as well as fiction texts boosts students'

vocabulary in that when students are reading nonfiction texts, teachers and parents

would place more emphasis on technical vocabulary and knowledge of concept (Duke

& Bennett-Armistead, 2003). Hence, students will derive great benefits from reading

nonfiction texts. The following studies pinpointed the increasing attention of

nonfiction texts and advocated that students in the primary grades have enough

exposure to nonfiction texts.

Pappa (1993) even suggested that "narrative as primary ideology" (p. 97) in the

early grades should be reconsidered. Pappa's study aimed to understand how

kindergarteners' students deal with different genres of stories (fiction) and information

books (nonfiction). The twenty kindergarteners, consisting of 10 boys and 10 girls,

read three story books and three informational books. The finding showed that

children were able to understand fiction and nonfiction genres, so they should not

only be limited to reading fictions genre only. If children have enough opportunities to

meet different genres, they can easily gain full access to literacy.

Likewise, Pappa, Caswell & Duke (1998) also recommended educators put

greater effort to include non-narrative (nonfiction) texts in early literacy education. In their research, two case studies of struggling readers, Peter and Issac, were observed. Both of them were in the Harvard Literacy Laboratory, "a free, university-based literacy center for children having difficulty learning to read and write" (Purcell-Gates, 1996, as cited in Casewell & Duke, 1998, p. 109). Both Peter and Issac joined this program because of their difficulty in learning to listen and read stories (fiction texts).

In the beginning, Peter could not read nor write well, but he did an excellent job and surprised his teacher when he was asked to write football game regulations. In the second year lab, Peter's lab teacher decided to provide Peter more opportunities to work with non-narrative (nonfiction) texts. Gradually, Peter became inquisitive in reading, and his reading achievement improved dramatically since he found delight in reading non-narrative texts.

The other student, Issac, only attended the Literacy Lab for a single semester because of transportation problems. Because the only written forms he read from were television and school, his literacy experience was limited. According to his school teacher, Issac's scores were not satisfactory either in narrative or non-narrative reading, but he seemed to like non-narrative topics more than narrative. The second semester consisted of continued literacy training at home once a week for several hours. His teacher began including more non-narrative texts into literacy activities. At

the end of the semester, Issac's overall ability to read and write achieved significant progress. The result of these two studies indicated non-narrative is likely to be a catalyst for literacy development. The researcher advocated that students in early grades were exposed to more non-narrative texts to help them deal with amounts of non-narrative texts in later schooling.

Duke and Kays (1998) also thought inclusion of non-narrative texts in the classroom was sensible. The researchers conducted an experiment to examine "children's knowledge of information book language in the context of a classroom in which read-aloud time has been extended to include expository as well as narrative texts" (p. 300). The participants were 20 kindergarteners. The teacher (second author) would read twenty-five information books to children over the course of approximately three-month period (from September to December). Children listened to different informational books as well as storybooks three or four times a week.

Because of the purpose of the study, book discussion or disruption occurred either during or after reading. And, most children listened to informational books or fictional narrative books with audio tape at least twice during the three-month period. In both September and December, children were tested. Each of them was required to read through two books: a fictional narrative book and an information book. After they read through the books, they had to pretend to read to the teacher. The

researchers recorded and transcribed children's pretend readings of fictional narrative

book and information book. The findings showed that children's pretend readings

included nonfiction characteristics such as: information-book-like beginnings

 "e.g., *first people call…the firefighters...and then the firefighters come*", more

timeless verb construction "e.g., f*irefighters <u>fight</u> fires and <u>save</u> people*", and some

comparative structures "e.g., *some fire trucks are different…some are big…and some*

are little" and so on (p. 307-311). The study provided evidence that young children

can understand and enjoy the interaction with nonfiction texts.

Notwithstanding the significance of informational texts and attention to reading

more informational texts in the early grades, research have also noticed reveals

students' limited exposure to informational texts at home and school (Duke, 2000;

Grabe, 2009a; Yopp & Yopp, 2000, 2006). Duke (2000) visited 20 first-grade

classrooms in districts with low or high socioeconomic status. Only an average of

2.6% of informational texts was displayed on the classroom walls and 9.8% of

informational materials in the classroom libraries. According to her observation,

students' contact with informational texts was only an average of 3.6 minutes during a

typical school day.

Likewise, Yopp (2006) investigated the percentage of informational texts used

at school and home. In the first study, a total of 1,487 book titles collected from

teachers and parents were divided in four categories—narrative, informational, mixed, and other. The percentage of narrative texts teacher read-alouds was 77%, but informational texts were only 8%. In the second study, a total of 1,473 book titles were examined. The percentage of narrative text parents read-alouds at home was 77% and informational texts was 7%. The two studies yielded similar results that informational texts were scarce both at home and at school.

A year later, Gibson (2007) conducted a study on the effects of parent-led interactive read-alouds of nonfiction books to explore first graders' vocabulary acquisition and their motivation to read. The 36 participants were divided into two groups: an intervention group and a control group. Parents attended a training session to learn how to lead their children to engage in interactive read-alouds. Participants had access to a lending library including 500+ nonfiction books. Ten of those nonfiction books were pulled out, and 32 target words from each of the 10 book were selected for the vocabulary acquisition research. The intervention period lasted for 11 weeks. During the intervention period, participants borrowed some nonfiction books including two target books each week. Every target book was at least read twice by participants. The pretests and the posttests (receptive and expressive vocabulary tasks and motivation to read) were taken before and after intervention period. After the posttest, the control group participants had access to the same lending library. The

procedure of borrowing books was the same as for the intervention group. They also took pretests and posttests. The results indicated the participants of intervention group obtained more target vocabulary knowledge than the participants of the control group. Therefore, nonfiction book read-alouds at home had a great impact on children's vocabulary and motivation to read.

Similarly, the purpose of Geraghty's (2008) study was to examine how fiction texts and nonfiction texts read-aloud affect students' vocabulary gains and discourse between the student and teacher. The subjects were 20, 25 and 26 preschool students from three classes, which were randomly chosen from a school district. A total of 20 books, including fiction texts and nonfiction texts, were chosen for the research. The procedure lasted for 12 weeks, and students listened to either fictional texts or nonfiction texts approximately 10-15 minutes five days a week. Each of the 20 books was at least read three times during the 12 weeks, exposures to fiction texts and nonfiction texts lasted 60 sessions (30 sessions for fiction texts; 30 sessions for nonfiction texts). Formal classroom observations were tape-recorded and transcribed by the researcher. Mean length of utterances, 'Wh' questions, common versus uncommon word frequency, number of children participating, and target word use were analyzed. The subjects took pretests and posttests of Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-Third Edition (PPVT-III), Expressive One Word Picture Vocabulary Test-2000

(EOWPVT) and target word vocabulary test. The researcher chose two words from each book and a total of 40 target words was selected. The target word vocabulary pretest consisted of 10 words from each fiction and nonfiction words lists. The other 10 words from each fiction and nonfiction word list were used for the posttest. The results presented significant more target vocabulary gains from nonfiction-book-read-alouds than those from fiction-book-read-alouds. Moreover, students used more complicated language in discussion after the teacher read aloud nonfiction texts. The more the students read nonfiction texts, the more beneficial it was for their oral language.

Kraemer (2009) administered a study to investigate the effects of listening to expository text on listening comprehension and student book choice. The participants were four classes of totally 77 first grade students from an elementary school. Each class was randomly divided into the experimental groups (E1 and E2) and control groups (C1 and C2). The students had to take a pretest and posttest to evaluate their interests in selecting narrative books and expository books. Meanwhile, the participants of group E1 and C1 listened to their teacher read a narrative passage first and an expository passage later while those of group E2 and C2 listened to their teacher read an expository passage first and then a narrative passage. After they listened to either a narrative passage or expository passage, they had to answer six

open-ended comprehension questions as a pretest. Thereafter, the experimental groups

received an intervention, but the control groups did not. The intervention was done by

the researcher, who visited students three times a week and read an expository text to

experimental groups (E1 and E2). The intervention lasted for a month. After the

intervention, the posttest followed the same format as the pretest. In the posttest, the

students of group E1 and C1 listened to their teacher read an expository passage and a

narrative passage later; the students of group E2 and C2 listened to their teacher read

a narrative passage first and then an expository passage. The results suggested that

first graders' listening comprehension of expository texts was considerably better than

narrative text comprehension after first graders listened to read-alouds of expository

texts over a month. In fact, the researcher held the view that exposures to expository

texts earlier could better support young children later schooling. The younger the

students are, the more capable they are of understanding textbooks and scientific texts.

The ability can prevent them from falling into the "fourth-grade slump" (Chall, Jacobs,

& Baldwin, 1990, as cited in Yopp & Yopp, 2006).

To sum up, the aforementioned studies claimed that the primary grade students

should be exposed to different genres in that reading both fiction and nonfiction texts

helped them achieve full literacy. Students should not read fiction texts in the primary

grade exclusively. Nonfiction texts can be a catalyst for literacy development and

motivate struggling readers to read more. Reading nonfiction texts also improves

students' vocabulary gains and has a positive effect on their oral language. If students

are exposed to nonfiction texts as early as possible, they will be better equipped to

cope with the considerable amount of nonfiction text reading which they are certain to

encounter in later schooling. Table 2.1 summarizes related studies.

Table 2.1 Summary of research related to nonfiction texts reading

2.4 Literature Gap

In this section, some of the factors affecting reading and listening comprehension such as vocabulary knowledge, syntactic structure, and text structure have been reviewed. Research in reading comprehension has been centered on text structure in the past two decades, and suggested that both L1 and L2 learners have been trained to read fiction texts more than nonfiction texts in their early education. Koda (2004) recognizes that teaching the varying skills required for understanding written fiction and nonfiction texts is essential, yet almost no research is available for developing the varying listening skills of L2 learners, especially as it pertains to nonfiction listening comprehension. While it is generally acknowledged that L1 learners can more easily comprehend nonfiction listening sources, L2 learners do not have the same advantages. Focusing solely on fiction listening exercise in an L2 classroom, L2 learners may result in failing to develop some of the skills required to become effective communicators in L2. Hence, more research is needed to determine whether the consideration of differing reading skills required designated training (i.e. both nonfiction and fiction) should be applied to listening comprehension as well.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methodology of the current study. First, the background of students is introduced. Then, the instruments and materials used in the study are described. Finally, data collection and data analysis procedures are discussed. The study aims to explore whether their listening comprehension of nonfiction material will improve if students are exposed only to fiction aural material.

3.1 Participants

The participants in the current study were 142 11th-grade students from four classes (Classes 503 and 504 of 2010; Classes 501 and 502 of 2011) of Taichung SY Senior High School. They planned to major in social science in college. They were 48 male students and 94 female students. These students became participants because all of them attended an extracurricular English program organized by Tunghai TEFL graduate program. Classes 503 and 504 of 2010 were the experimental group and Classes 501 and 502 of 2011 were the control group. In 2010, when the experiment was conducted, there were not enough candidates available for the control group. Students in the control group were chosen because they had similar backgrounds as the experimental group. All of them were in the social science track. All the

participants of the 2010 and 2011 had studied English at least four years through junior and senior high school English education, and their English proficiency were considered pre-intermediate level.

3.2 Treatment Material

The study used a quasi-experimental design to investigate whether fiction listening training can improve listening comprehension of nonfictions texts. Treatment material used for participants was a listening training package suitable for 11th grade students. The package was originally prepared by two TEFL graduate students for a graduate level course which required the students to design a portfolio assessment package and implement the assessment in a high school class in central Taiwan area. This package was adapted from parts of the "*K's First Case,*" a murder story written by L.G. Alexander with audio recording. They used eight episodes from the book and designed eight tasks with worksheets. The length of the recordings ranged from 2' 06'' to 7' 13''. In the beginning, the students were told to imagine that they were the assistant of Detective K, who strove to discover the suspects' motives and solve the murder case. Each week the students were required to listen (Class 503)/ read (Class 504) the vocabulary first, then listened to a section of the story and completed exercises on worksheets, consisting multiple choice questions for main idea and an

inference question, and dictation for dialogues. The students had to return the

worksheet to the teacher on designated days. After listening to the fiction story over

the course of eight weeks, students' listening ability was expected to have improved.

(See Appendix A for the complete package of eight worksheets.) These two classes of

students participated in the current study with the permission of their English teacher

and the designer of the listening package gave their permission to include the package

in the thesis.

3.3 Measurement

The instrument used in this study assessed students' listening comprehension of

fiction and nonfiction texts. The researcher struggled to identify suitable material from

ready-made fiction and nonfiction listening comprehension tests. In some cases, the

researcher found an appropriate text without a test. Therefore, the researcher sought to

find appropriate recordings and designed multiple choice listening comprehension

questions. After discussing the test content and revising the questions with his thesis

adviser, the researcher created a unique version of the test to suit the particular needs of

this study.

The instrument consisted of 16 multiple choice questions, including seven

passages: four nonfiction texts and three fiction texts. The four nonfiction aural texts

were chosen from the book *Facts & Figure,* published by Thomson Heinle (2005); the other three aural fiction texts were chosen from *Houghton Mifflin Reading,* published by Houghton Mifflin (2001). *Facts & Figure* was written for students of English as a second or foreign language. This book is divided into several themes such as animals, plants, explorations or occupations and those themes which are all based on factual information.

The researcher selected four different texts from the book. The first text describes how camels are able to live in a desert. Camels' humps store food and water, and their eyelashes protect their eyes from sand and wind. The second text, describing why seawater contains salt, mentions that water coming from lakes and rivers evaporates allowing the level of salt to become concentrated in the ocean, rendering the ocean salty. The third text discusses the history and various ways people have used date palms. The fourth text describes how people spend their leisure time. Some of them enjoy watching TV and using computers. Some of them mix their work and leisure time, wherein they believe they now have less free time because of the amount of tasks to accomplish.

The other three texts used in the study were fictional stories. These stories are longer since they present a series of sequential events and dialogues. The fifth text, "Fireflies for Nathan," is the story of a boy who enjoys catching fireflies with his

grandparents. The sixth text, "Days with Frog and Toad," describes how Frog gave

Toad a hat for his birthday, but the hat was too big. The story continues as they figure

out ways to shrink the hat. The seventh text, "Dragon Gets By," is a comical story of a

dragon who eats a lot and has to go shopping again and again. These seven texts

consisted of ready-made recordings with the rate of speech particularly appropriate for

our participants. The length of nonfiction recording ranged from one and a half minutes

to two minutes and fiction recording ranged from two minutes to five and half minutes.

Table 3.1

Description of the measurement

Text Genre	Title	Number of words	Length of Recording	Number of Questions
Nonfiction	The Camel	180	1'29"	4
Nonfiction	Why is the Sea Salty?	165	1'22"	4
Nonfiction	The Date Palm	160	1'15"	3
Nonfiction	Time Off	255	1'50"	5
Fiction	Fireflies for Nathan	402	6'05"	7
Fiction	Days with Frog and Toad	340	4'25"	5
Fiction	Dragon Gets By	300	3'28"	4

The number of listening comprehension questions for each recording varied

because of the difficulty levels of the texts and the length of the recordings. The

nonfiction text recording is much shorter than the fiction texts recording because the

nonfiction texts are condensed with a great amount of information while nonfiction

texts include dialogue with pauses or some more plot-related information necessary

for the story development. There were totally 32 listening comprehension questions, 16 questions for fiction texts and 16 for nonfiction texts. Each of the listening comprehension questions had four possible choices. After listening to each passage, participants were asked to answer the questions by choosing the best answer. In order to control order effects, a counterbalanced design was adopted. Half of the tests started with the 16 nonfiction questions and half with the 16 fiction questions. More specifically speaking, the experimental group took form A of the listening comprehension test as a pretest and form B of the test as a posttest; the control group took form B as a pretest and form A as a posttest. The two versions of the measurement are displayed in Appendix C; the transcripts of fiction and nonfiction recording are displayed in Appendix D.

Two hypotheses were formulated for the current study. The first hypothesis addresses RQs 1, 2, and 4 with regard to non-fiction listening scores. The second hypothesis focuses on RQs 3 and 5 placing emphasis on improvement in fiction listening scores.

H1: The experimental group will not significantly improve in non-fiction listening comprehension scores.

H2: The experimental group will improve more than the control group in fiction.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

The data collection procedure took place on February 14 and June 21 in 2010 and February 21 and June 14 in 2011. Before the participants began their English program, they were required to take a 32 multiple-choice listening comprehension pretest in the classroom in Taichung SY Senior High School. The participants in each class were tested collectively in the early morning. The whole listening test took approximately 30 minutes including the researcher's instruction, and distribution and collection of the test paper. Figure 3.1 depicted the procedure of the data collection.

Experimental Group took a pretest (2010/02/14)	Fiction listenig training	Experimental Group took a posttest (2010/06/21)
• Control Group took a pretest (2011/02/21)	• No special listening training	• Control Group took a posttest (2011/06/14)
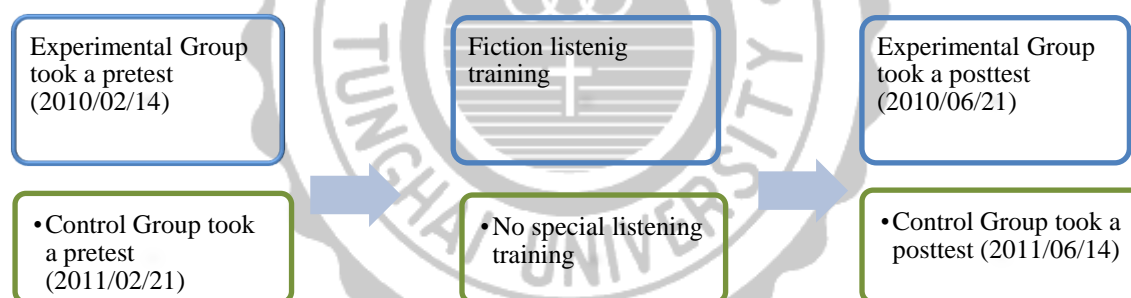
Figure 3.1 Data Collection Procedure

3.5 Data Analysis

When the researcher graded the test papers, one point was awarded for each correct answer and zero points were assigned for unanswered or incorrectly answered questions. A total of 32 points constituted the maximum possible score. In order to determine whether the participants' fiction or nonfiction listening comprehension

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changed after four months of treatment, statistical analysis was conducted. First, descriptive statistics were calculated. Then, three paired-samples t-tests were conducted to evaluate the impact of fiction listening training on participants' overall listening ability, fiction listening comprehension, and nonfiction listening comprehension. Furthermore, two independent-samples t-tests were used to compare the overall results between the experimental and control groups. All the above statistical procedures were conducted with SPSS 16.0 using Windows 2007 software. Table 3.2 provides the details and associated purposes regarding the employment of the statistical tools employed by the researcher.
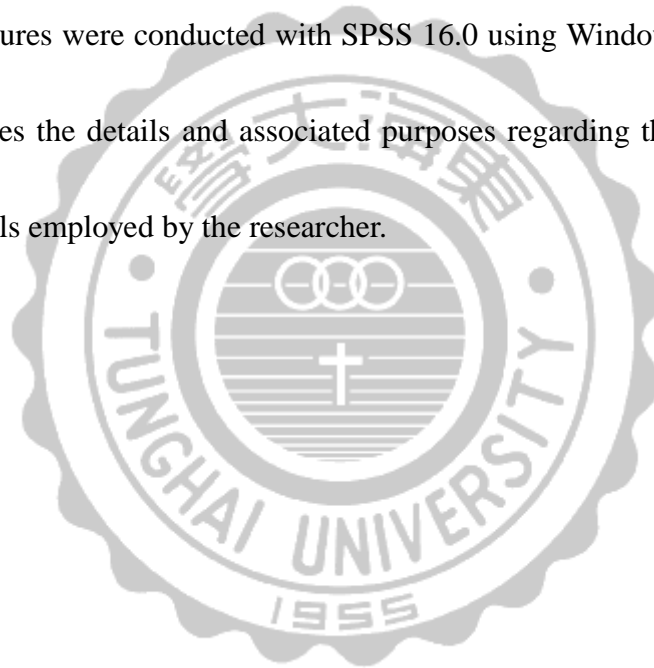
Table 3.2

Details of statistical tools

Research Questions	Purpose	Statistical Tools
RQ 1. Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants perform significantly better on the listening comprehension test that requires both fiction and nonfiction listening comprehension than those who do not receive the training?	To detail the impact of listening training on participants' *overall listening comprehension*	Paired-samples *t*-test
RQ 2. Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants improve their fiction listening comprehension?	To detail the impact of listening training on participants' *fiction listening comprehension*	Paired-samples *t*-test
RQ 3. Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants improve significantly more than those who do not receive the training on the fiction listening comprehension test?	To examine whether participants' fiction listening improvement in the experimental group was *more than* the control group	Independent-samples *t*-test ANCOVA*
RQ 4. Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants improve their nonfiction listening comprehension?	To detail the impact of listening training on participants' *nonfiction listening comprehension*	Paired-samples *t*-test
RQ 5. Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants improve significantly more than those who do not receive the training on the nonfiction listening comprehension test?	To examine whether participants' nonfiction listening improvement in the experimental group was *more than* the control group	Independent-samples *t*-test

Note: *see section 4.5.1

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the results of the experiment are illustrated. First, the reliability of the instrument is examined by item analysis to verify whether the instrument is reliable. Second, the score distributions are displayed. Then, the analyses of the participants' listening abilities on both the fiction and nonfiction pretests through two independent-samples t-tests are reported. Furthermore, the researcher presents the results of the paired-samples *t*-tests and ANCOVA, which examined whether student's listening ability improved and compared the improvements respectively. Lastly, the statistics results will be discussed and the research questions will be answered.

4.1 Content Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

"Content validity is based on the extent to which a measurement reflects the specific intended domain of content" (Carmines & Zeller, 1991, p.20). If a test has content validity, then it can properly test what its researchers had previously set out to test. To establish the content validity of the instrument, the researcher chose the texts related to fiction and nonfiction. The instrument of current study was used to examine participants' fiction and nonfiction listening comprehension, so the researcher chose four nonfiction texts and three fiction texts summarized in section 3.3 and designed 16

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questions for each fiction and nonfiction texts. The text content conformed to what the researcher had planned in examining the participants' fiction and nonfiction listening comprehension.

In order to validate the reliability of the instrument, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was employed to assess whether the instrument is a reliable instrument or not. De Vellis (1998) suggested that $\alpha < .65$ is unacceptable for social studies; α between .65 and .70 is probably acceptable; α between .70 and .80 is good; $\alpha > .80$ is excellent reliability. A total of 142 participants took the pretest and posttest. The reliability coefficient analysis in the experimental group showed .74 for the pretest and .79 for the posttest; the control group showed .81 for the pretest and .82 for the posttest. Therefore, the reliability of the instrument is considered adequate. The detailed reliability of both the pretest and posttest is summarized in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1
Reliability of pretest and posttest

Cronbach's α	Reliability (Pretest)	Reliability (Posttest)
Experimental Group	0.74 (N=73)	0.79 (N=68)
Control Group	0.81 (N=74)	0.82 (N=74)
All	0.79 (N=142)	0.83 (N=142)

4.2 Score Distribution

The distribution of scores on the pretest and posttest in the experimental and control groups displayed near-to-normal distribution. This visual representation of Figure 4.1 also clearly indicates that only a small number of the participants received excessively low scores.

	1~5	6~10	11~15	16~20	21~25	26-30	31-32
Pretest	1	4	29	42	49	15	2
Posttest	1	7	23	42	40	26	3
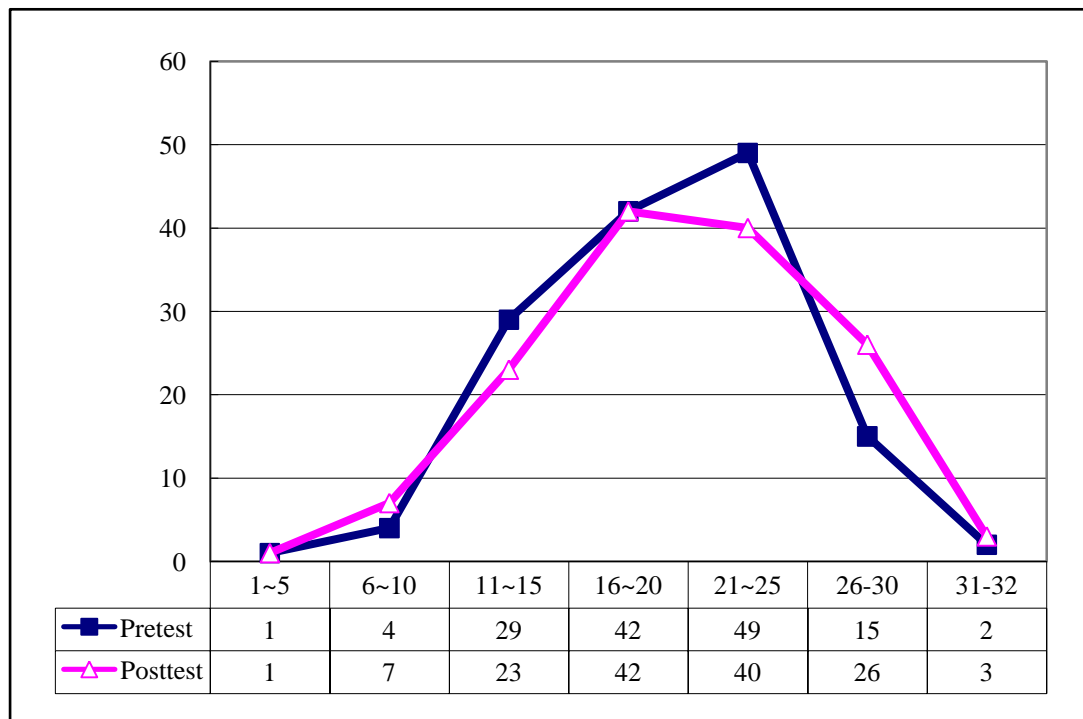
Figure 4.1 The score distributions of the pretest and posttest

With an average score of 19.5 and 20 out of 32 on the pretest and posttest respectively, most of the scores (84.51% of the pretest scores and 73.94% of the posttest scores) fell between 14 and 25 points on the pretest and between 14 and 26 on the posttest. Very few participants received 10 points below. Less than 20% of the

participants achieved scores higher than 25 points on the pretest (11.99%) than on the

posttest (20.42%) Table 4.2 presents the details of the test results and individual

scores are included in the Appendix E. The pretest score distributions of the

experimental and control groups are similar. Both showed near-to-normal distribution.

(See Figure 4.2)

Table 4.2
Frequency of the pretest and posttest

Scores	Pretest	Posttest
1~5	0.70%	0.70%
6~10	2.82%	4.93%
11~15	20.42%	16.20%
16~20	29.58%	29.58%
21~25	34.51%	28.17%
26-30	10.56%	18.31%
31-32	1.41%	2.11%
11~25	84.51%	73.94%

	1~5	6~10	11~15	16~20	21~25	26-30	31-32
Exp Pretest	0	1	10	17	32	7	1
Control Pretest	1	3	19	25	17	8	1
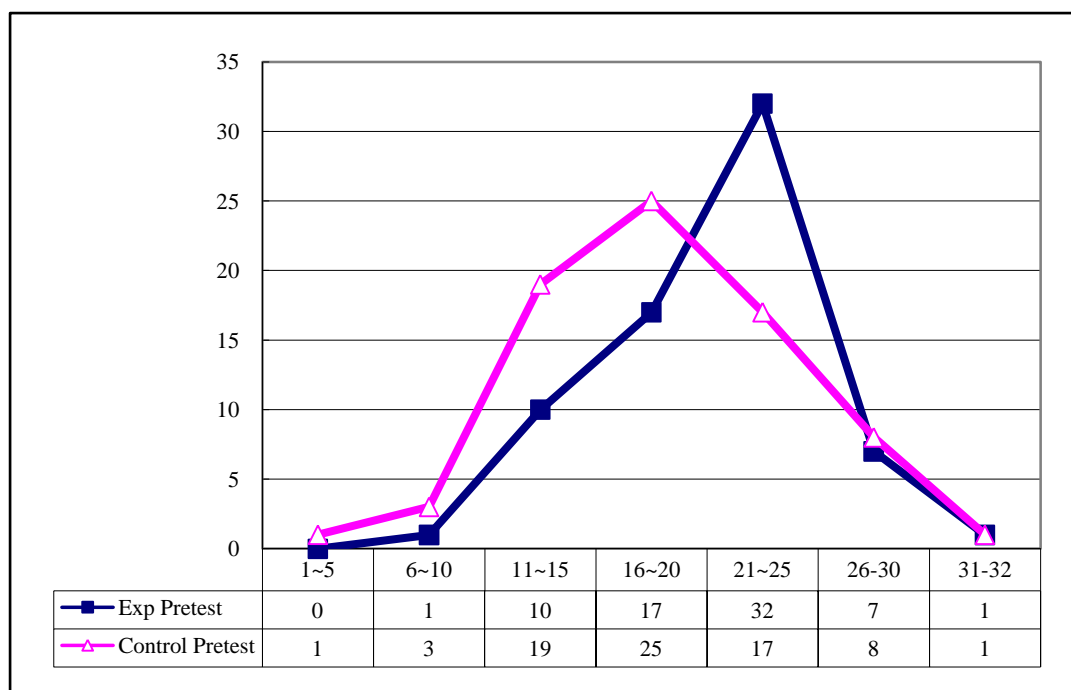
Figure 4.2 The score distributions of the experimental and control groups' pretest

The pretest scores of the two groups are presented in Table 4.3. The scores are centralized around 11 to 25 points. The posttest score distributions of the experimental and control groups also show near-to-normal distribution. (See Figure 4.3)

Table 4.3
Frequency of the experimental and control groups' pretest

Scores	Exp Pretest	Control Pretest
1~5	0.00%	1.47%
6~10	1.47%	4.41%
11~15	14.71%	27.94%
16~20	25.00%	36.76%
21~25	47.06%	25.00%
26-30	10.29%	11.76%
31-32	1.47%	1.47%
11~25	86.76%	89.71%

	1~5	6~10	11~15	16~20	21~25	26-30	31-32
Exp Posttest	0	1	8	13	27	18	1
Control Posttest	1	6	15	29	13	8	2
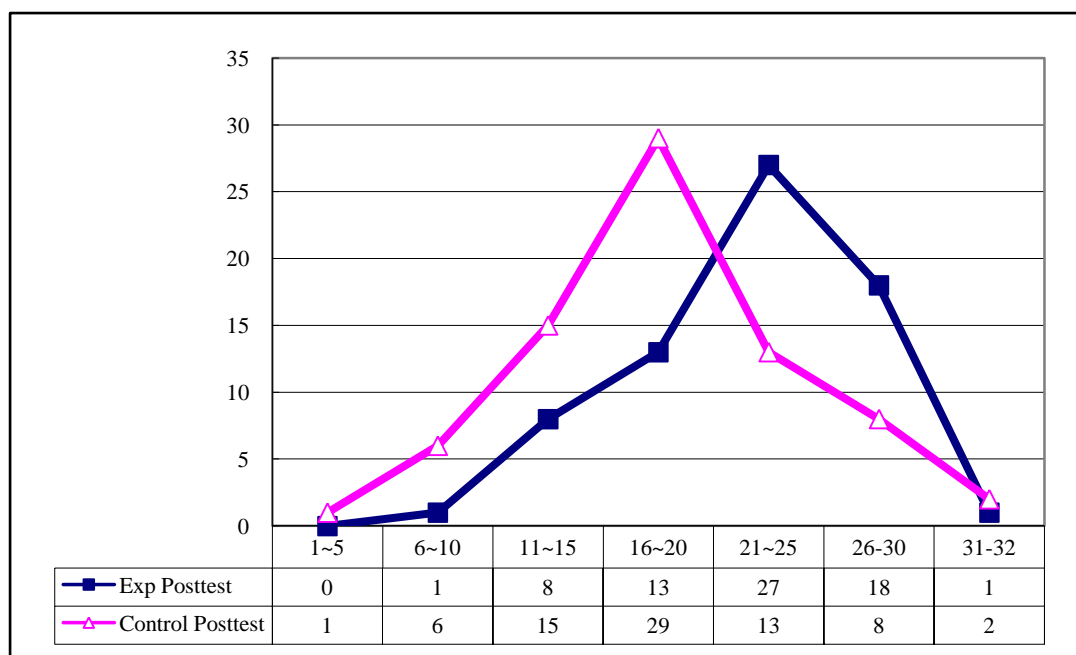
Figure 4.3 The score distributions of the experimental and control groups' posttest

What appeared different was that the posttest scores of the experimental group were higher. (See Table 4.4) The visual representation of the score distributions on Figure 4.3 also displays the difference.

Table 4.4
Frequency of the experimental and control groups' posttest

Scores	Exp Posttest	Control Posttest
1~5	0.00%	1.35%
6~10	1.47%	4.05%
11~15	11.76%	25.68%
16~20	19.12%	33.78%
21~25	39.71%	22.97%
26-30	26.47%	10.81%
31-32	1.47%	1.35%
11~25	70.59%	82.43%

4.3 Item Analysis

Item analysis refers to a statistical technique that assesses the quality of the test items. Researchers can employ item analysis to eliminate misleading items or items of poor quality from the test. Given that the instrument in this study is a multiple-choice test, the *item difficulty level* (See section 4.3.1) and *discrimination index* (See section 4.3.2) were the criteria used to examine the quality of the test items. Furthermore, *Cronbach's alpha if Item Deleted* (See section 4.3.3) is another measure which was used to decide whether the specific test item should be deleted or not.

4.3.1 Item Difficulty Level

Item difficulty indicates the proportion of participants who answer a question correctly A high percentage indicates the question is too easy while a lower percentage indicates that the question is difficult. As the purpose of this study is to evaluate participants' listening comprehension, the questions should not be too difficult. In the event that the questions were too difficult, the instrument would fail to discriminate participant listening comprehension ability altogether. The difficulty of the test item is determined by different circumstances. To evaluate the students' fundamental academic abilities, the difficulty of the test items should be around 0.8; for general tests in school, the difficulty of the test items should be around 0.5. If the

purpose of the test is to single out outstanding students, the difficulty of the test items should be around 0.1 (Wang, Lu, Wu, Chang & Chang, 1999, p.283).

Since the purpose of using those tests was different from the above mentioned conditions. A different standard was employed. Mullen et al. (2004) pointed out, "A difficulty factor between 0.2 and 0.8 is usually considered acceptable; in a reasonably heterogeneous sample, item difficulty should approach 0.5 for best discrimination" (p.166). Therefore, the researcher selected 0.2 to 0.8 as the test items difficulty standard. Items that had a difficulty value below 0.2 were considered as too difficult while above 0.8 as too easy. Items that are too difficult or easy are not conducive to determining the quality of the test. Both Tables 4.5 and 4.6 show the difficulty levels of non-fiction and fiction items in the pretest and posttest.

On the pretest, items 5.1 and 7.1 and on the posttest, items 5.1 and 4.2 were higher than 0.8. This indicates that these test items were too easy. However, since these results must be analyzed alongside the other reliability criteria such as discrimination index and Alpha if Item Deleted neither the discrimination index nor Alpha if Item Deleted concurred with these assessments. (See sections 4.3.2 and 4.3.3) Therefore, these items 4.2, 5.1 and 7.1 were kept.

Table 4.5
Nonfiction and fiction Item Difficulty (Pretest)

Item	Difficulty (Nonfiction)	Item	Difficulty (Fiction)
1.1	.63	5.1	**.92**
1.2	.73	5.2	.74
1.3	.76	5.3	.41
1.4	.45	5.4	.52
2.1	.52	6.1	.73
2.2	.41	6.2	.51
2.3	.73	6.3	.75
2.4	.58	6.4	.63
3.1	.69	6.5	.75
3.2	.63	7.1	**.84**
3.3	.51	7.2	.58
4.1	.63	7.3	.71
4.2	.80	7.4	.44
4.3	.74	7.5	.61
4.4	.42	7.6	.24
4.5	.65	7.7	.31

Table 4.6
Nonfiction and fiction Item Difficulty (Posttest)

Item	Difficulty (Nonfiction)	Item	Difficulty (Fiction)
1.1	.58	5.1	**.94**
1.2	.73	5.2	.70
1.3	.77	5.3	.47
1.4	.53	5.4	.56
2.1	.48	6.1	.74
2.2	.40	6.2	.56
2.3	.70	6.3	.74
2.4	.62	6.4	.58
3.1	.74	6.5	.80
3.2	.62	7.1	.79
3.3	.53	7.2	.63
4.1	.67	7.3	.70
4.2	**.81**	7.4	.46
4.3	.80	7.5	.63
4.4	.52	7.6	.25
4.5	.73	7.7	.35

4.3.2 Discrimination Index

The discrimination index ranks all the participants' scores from highest to lowest. Discrimination is calculated by selecting the highest 27% of all participants and subtracting their combined score from the lowest 27%. The higher the discrimination value, the better quality the test item is. According to Ebel (1965), a score of 0.4 is a good test item, however if it's between 0.2 and 0.39, a test item should be revised. A test item should be eliminated if the discrimination index is below 0.19. Test items that are too hard or too easy do not have good discrimination index value. Table 4.7 and 4.8 show all the discrimination indexes for the nonfiction and fiction items in the pretest and posttest. However, the decision to keep all test items was subject to difficulty level and Alpha if Item Deleted. (See sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.3)
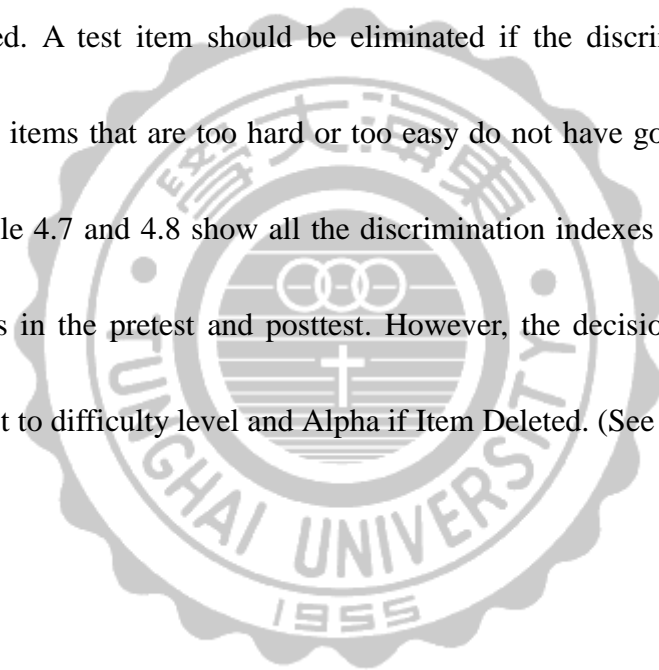
Table 4.7
Nonfiction and fiction Discrimination Index (Pretest)

Item	Discrimination index (Nonfiction)	Item	Discrimination Index (Fiction)
1.1	.22	5.1	**.14**
1.2	.38	5.2	.28
1.3	.35	5.3	.51
1.4	.26	5.4	.46
2.1	.53	6.1	.36
2.2	.57	6.2	.67
2.3	.29	6.3	.52
2.4	.37	6.4	.45
3.1	.53	6.5	.43
3.2	.57	7.1	.38
3.3	.46	7.2	.54
4.1	.55	7.3	.38
4.2	.42	7.4	.60
4.3	.40	7.5	.57
4.4	.59	7.6	**.12**
4.5	.51	7.7	.31

Table 4.8
Nonfiction and fiction Discrimination Index (Posttest)

Item	Discrimination Index (Nonfiction)	Item	Discrimination Index (Fiction)
1.1	.36	5.1	**.04**
1.2	.55	5.2	.47
1.3	.40	5.3	.40
1.4	.56	5.4	.61
2.1	.56	6.1	.39
2.2	.60	6.2	.68
2.3	.38	6.3	.53
2.4	.54	6.4	.49
3.1	.52	6.5	.33
3.2	.56	7.1	.21
3.3	.61	7.2	.33
4.1	.52	7.3	.59
4.2	.45	7.4	.66
4.3	.28	7.5	.61
4.4	.54	7.6	**.06**
4.5	.62	7.7	.44

Almost all of the data related to discrimination index level indicated that scores on both pretests and posttests fell within the acceptable range, excepted that items 5.1 and 7.6 on the pretest and posttest were lower than 0.2. However, since item difficulty levels of these two items and the Alpha if Item Deleted did not concur with these assessments, they were still considered to be valid and thus included on the final instrument.

4.3.3 Alpha if Item Deleted

Alpha if Item Deleted is another important measure for analyzing test item reliability. If one of the outlying items is deleted, the other test items' alphas are increased. The analyses showed that when nonfiction test items 1.1 and 1.4, fiction test items 7.6 and 7.7 in the pretest, and fiction test items 7.6 in the posttest were removed, the overall alpha are increased. Therefore, if those test items are removed, the reliability of the test can be raised by 0.01 or 0.02. However, the reliability of the test would not benefit from the removal of those items. (See Table 4.9 and Table 4.10)

Table 4.9

Nonfiction and fiction Alpha if Item Deleted (Pretest)

Item	Alpha if Item Deleted (Nonfiction)	Item	Alpha if Item Deleted (Fiction)
1.1	**.67**	5.1	.64
1.2	.64	5.2	.64
1.3	.65	5.3	.62
1.4	**.67**	5.4	.64
2.1	.64	6.1	.64
2.2	.64	6.2	.61
2.3	.66	6.3	.61
2.4	.65	6.4	.64
3.1	.63	6.5	.62
3.2	.63	7.1	.62
3.3	.64	7.2	.62
4.1	.63	7.3	.63
4.2	.63	7.4	.61
4.3	.64	7.5	.61
4.4	.63	7.6	**.66**
4.5	.64	7.7	**.65**

Note. Reliability coefficient α =.66 (Nonfiction); Reliability coefficient α =.64 (Fiction)
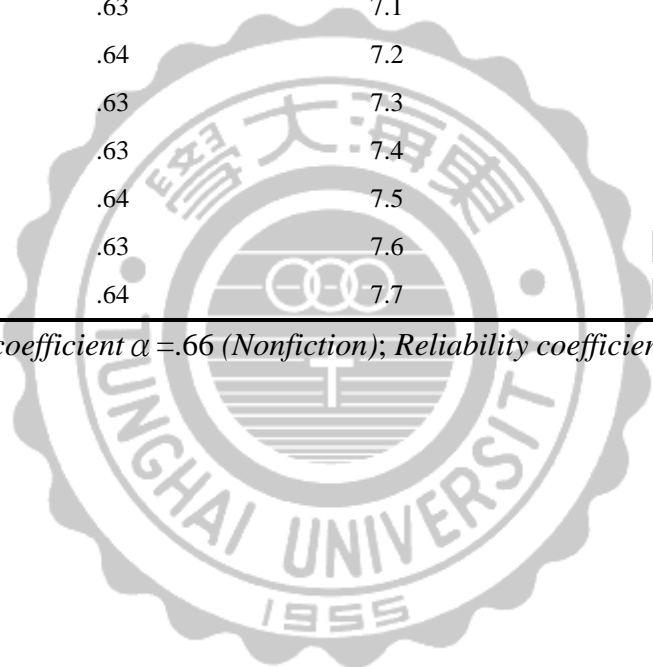
Table 4.10
Nonfiction and fiction Alpha if Item Deleted (Posttest)

Item	Alpha if Item Deleted (Nonfiction)	Item	Alpha if Item Deleted (Fiction)
1.1	.73	5.1	.71
1.2	.71	5.2	.69
1.3	.71	5.3	.70
1.4	.72	5.4	.68
2.1	.72	6.1	.70
2.2	.71	6.2	.68
2.3	.73	6.3	.68
2.4	.71	6.4	.69
3.1	.71	6.5	.69
3.2	.72	7.1	.71
3.3	.71	7.2	.70
4.1	.72	7.3	.67
4.2	.71	7.4	.67
4.3	.72	7.5	.68
4.4	.72	7.6	**.73**
4.5	.73	7.7	.70

Note. Reliability coefficient α =.73 (Nonfiction) Reliability coefficient α =.71 (Fiction)

Overall, the results and discussion shown in section 4.3 relating to all three measures of reliability conclude that all of the items employed on the current study's instrument demonstrated statistically significant reliability. As a result, the researcher's confidence in including the items on the instrument was justified.

4.4 Test Performance

The results of fiction and nonfiction test items of the experimental and control

groups are presented in this section. The variance test outcomes of the different

groups will also be addressed.

4.4.1 Test Performance of the Control Group

The participants of the control had an average score of 18.50 on the 32-item

pretest. Two participants achieved the highest possible score of 32 points and the

lowest score was 4 points. Specifically, the participants had an average score of 9.04

on the 16 fiction items and 9.46 on the 16 nonfiction items. Some of control group

participants had the maximum score 16 points on the fiction and nonfiction items, but

some got as low as 3 points on the fiction items and 0 points on the nonfiction items.

(See Table 4.11)

Table 4.11

Descriptive statistics of the pretest in the control group

Group	Item	Pretest					
		Mean	SD	Range	Max	Mini	No. of Items
Control	NF + F	18.50	5.74	28	32	4	32
Control	Fiction	9.04	2.88	13	16	3	16
Control	Nonfiction	9.46	3.30	16	16	0	16

N=74

For the posttest, the participants' mean score was 18.32 for 32-item pretest. The best score the participants had was 31 points and the lowest was 5 points. The control group participants had an average mean score of 9.04 for the 16 fiction items and 9.28 for the 16 nonfiction items. The participants' highest score was 15 points and the lowest score was 1 point for 16 fiction items. Meanwhile, the highest score of the nonfiction part was 16 points and the lowest was 2 points. Table 4.12 presents the descriptive statistics of the posttest for the control group.

Table 4.12
Descriptive statistics of the posttest in the control group

| Group | Item | Posttest | | | | | |
		Mean	SD	Range	Max	Mini	No. of Items
Control	NF + F	18.32	5.98	26	31	5	32
Control	Fiction	9.04	3.32	14	15	1	16
Control	Nonfiction	9.28	3.35	14	16	2	16

N=74

A paired-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the participants' performance between pretest and posttest in the control group. The mean score of the pretest (M = 18.50, SD = 5.73) and posttest (M = 18.32, SD = 5.98) (p = .606) of the control group did not differ significantly. More specifically, no significant differences were found between the nonfiction pretest (M = 9.46, SD = 3.30) and the posttest (M

= 9.28, SD = 3.35) (*p* = .465) nor significant difference was found between the fiction

pretest (M =9.04, SD = 2.88) and the posttest (M = 9.04, SD = 3.32) (*p* = 1). These

results suggested that participants' listening in the control group did not change during

the time when the experimental group was receiving the treatment.

Table 4.13

Comparison of performance between pretest and posttest in the control group

Group	Item	Pretest		Posttest		*t*	*p*
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Control	NF+F	18.50	5.73	18.32	5.98	0.52	.606
Control	Fiction	9.04	2.88	9.04	3.32	0.00	1.000
Control	Nonfiction	9.46	3.30	9.28	3.35	-0.73	.465

Figure 4.4 is the visual representation of the cumulative percentage of the

control group's performance on the pretest and posttest. It is very clear that no

significant changes can be found between the two test results.
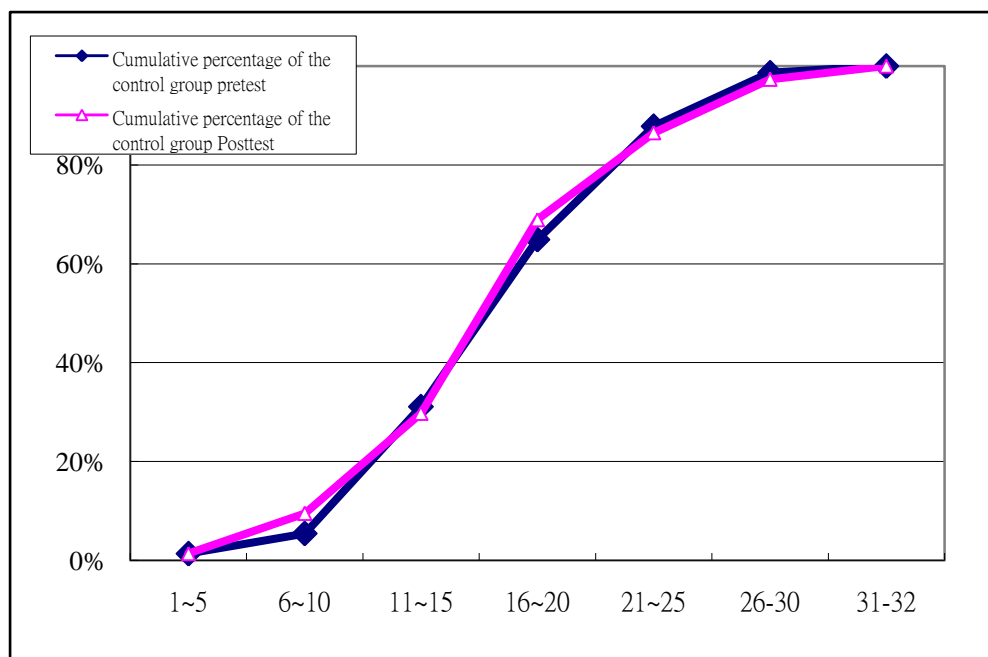
Figure 4.4 Cumulative percentage of the control groups' pretest and posttest

4.4.2 Test Performance of the Experiment Group

The participants of the experimental group had mean score of 20.60 on the pretest. Some of participants obtained the full score of 32 points and the lowest score was 8 points. More specifically, the experimental group had an average score of 10.29 on the 16-item fiction part and 10.31 on the nonfiction part. One participant had the highest score 16 points on the fiction and nonfiction items, but the lowest score points on the fiction part was 4 points and 3 points on the nonfiction part. (See Table 4.14)

Table 4.14

Descriptive statistics of the pretest in the experimental group

Group	Item	Pretest					
		Mean	SD	Range	Max	Mini	No. of Items
Experiment	NF + F	20.60	4.77	24	32	8	32
Experiment	Fiction	10.29	2.78	12	16	4	16
Experiment	Nonfiction	10.31	2.74	13	16	3	16

N=68

For the posttest, the experimental group participants had mean score of 22.10 out of 32. The maximum score the participants had was 31 points and the minimum was 10 points. The participants had mean score of 10.87 for the 16 fiction items and 11.24 for the 16 nonfiction items. In addition, participants had the best score of 15 points for the 16 fiction items and the lowest score was 5 points. For 16 nonfiction items, participants had the best score 16 points and the lowest 4 points. Table 4.15 displays the descriptive statistics of the pretest and posttest for the experimental group.

Table 4.15

Descriptive statistics of the posttest in the experimental group

Group	Item	Posttest					
		Mean	SD	Range	Max	Mini	No. of Items
Experiment	NF + F	22.10	5.10	21	31	10	32
Experiment	Fiction	10.87	2.62	10	15	5	16
Experiment	Nonfiction	11.24	2.98	12	16	4	16

N=68

A paired-samples *t*-test indicated that the participants' mean scores of the experimental group were significant different between pretest (M = 20.60, SD = 4.77) and posttest (M = 22.10, SD = 5.10) (*p* = .001). Furthermore, the results revealed that there was statistically significant difference between mean scores of the nonfiction pretest (M = 10.31, SD = 2.74) and the nonfiction posttest (M = 11.24, SD = 3.00) (*p* = .007) . Similarly, a statistically significant difference was found between means scores of the fiction pretest (M = 10.29, SD = 2.78) and the fiction posttest (M = 10.87, SD = 2.62) (*p* = .036). Table 4.16 shows the comparison of performance in the experimental group.

Table 4.16

Comparison of performance between pretest and posttest in the experimental group

Group	Item	Pretest		Posttest		t	p
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Experiment	NF+F	20.60	4.77	22.10	5.10	3.35*	.001
Experiment	Fiction	10.29	2.78	10.87	2.62	2.14*	.036
Experiment	Nonfiction	10.31	2.74	11.24	3.00	2.80*	.007

*P<.05

Figure 4.5 displays the cumulative percentage of the experimental groups'

performances on the pretest and posttest. The presentation shows clearly the posttest

scores were higher than the pretest.
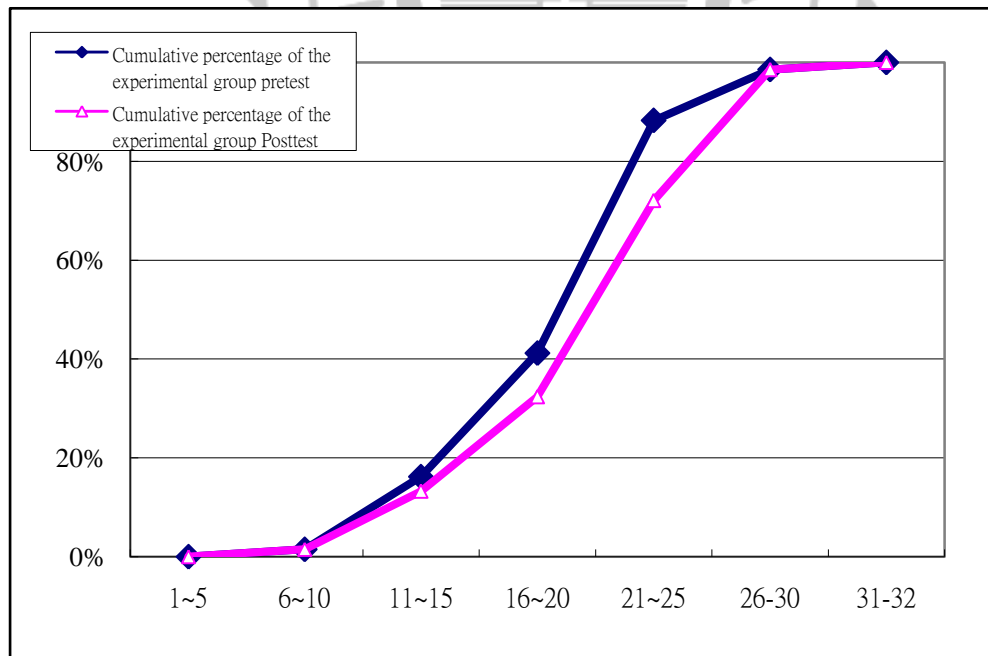
Figure 4.5 Cumulative percentage of the experimental groups' pretest and posttest

Figure 4.6 illustrates performance on fiction and nonfiction items in the pretest

and posttest for the experimental group. Further, the figure presents the improvement

of fiction and nonfiction between pretest and posttest in the experimental group.
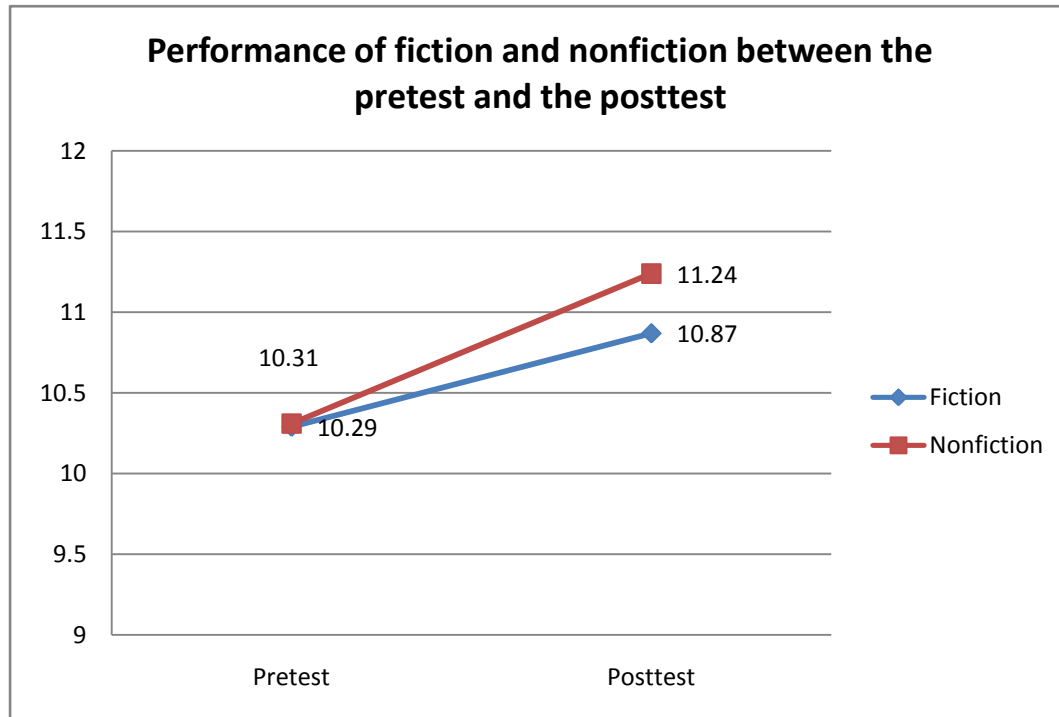
Figure 4.6 Fiction and nonfiction performance between the pretest and posttest in the
 experimental groups.

4.4.3 Comparisons between the Experiment and Control Group

The previous sections demonstrated that experimental group participants'

overall posttest scores were significantly better than those on the pretest. However,

further investigation is needed to confirm whether their improvement is greater than

that of the control group. Three independent-samples *t*-test were conducted to

compare the differences of participant's different test scores of the experimental and

control groups.

Table 4.17 illustrates that there was a significant difference between the pretests (M = 20.60, SD = 4.77) in the experimental group and the control group (M = 18.50, SD = 5.74) (p = .019). That is to say, the experimental group's overall listening ability was better than that of the control group. Table 4.17 shows differences of the two groups' pretest performances.

Table 4.17
Independent-samples t-test results of the pretest in the experimental and control groups

Test	Group	Participants	Mean	SD	t	p
Pretest	（1）Experiment	68	20.60	4.77	2.36*	.019
	（2）Control	74	18.50	5.74		

*P<.05

Since the experimental group's pretest scores were significantly higher than that of the control groups, the comparison of the improvement have to subtract the pretest scores. The subtractions indicated the improvement of the test scores (M = 1.5) in the experimental group was significantly greater than that made by the control group (M = -0.18) (p = .038). The statistics are presented in Table 4.18. Figure 4.7 and 4.8 are the visual representations of their differences.

Table 4.18

The analysis of the test improvement in the experimental and control groups

Item	Group	Participants	Mean of Difference	SD	t	p
Improvement	（1）Experiment	68	1.5	3.69	.003*	.038
	（2）Control	74	-0.18	2.92		

*P<.05
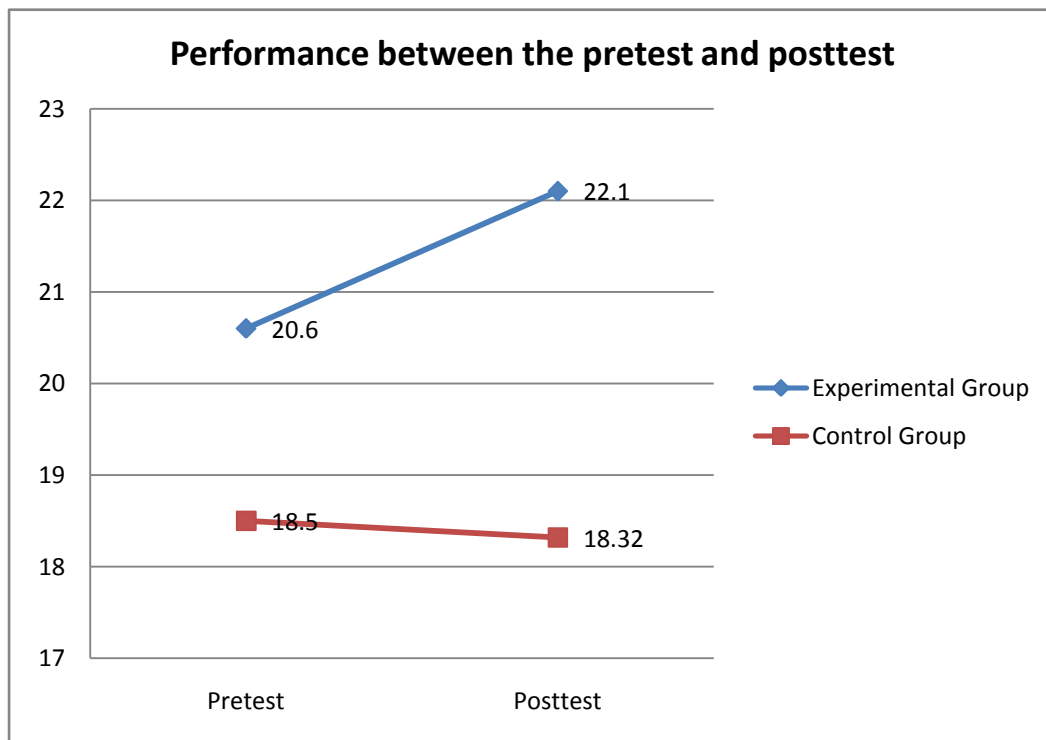
Figure 4.7 Performance between the pretest and posttest in the experimental and control groups.

	Control Group	Experiment Group
☐ improvement	-0.18	1.5
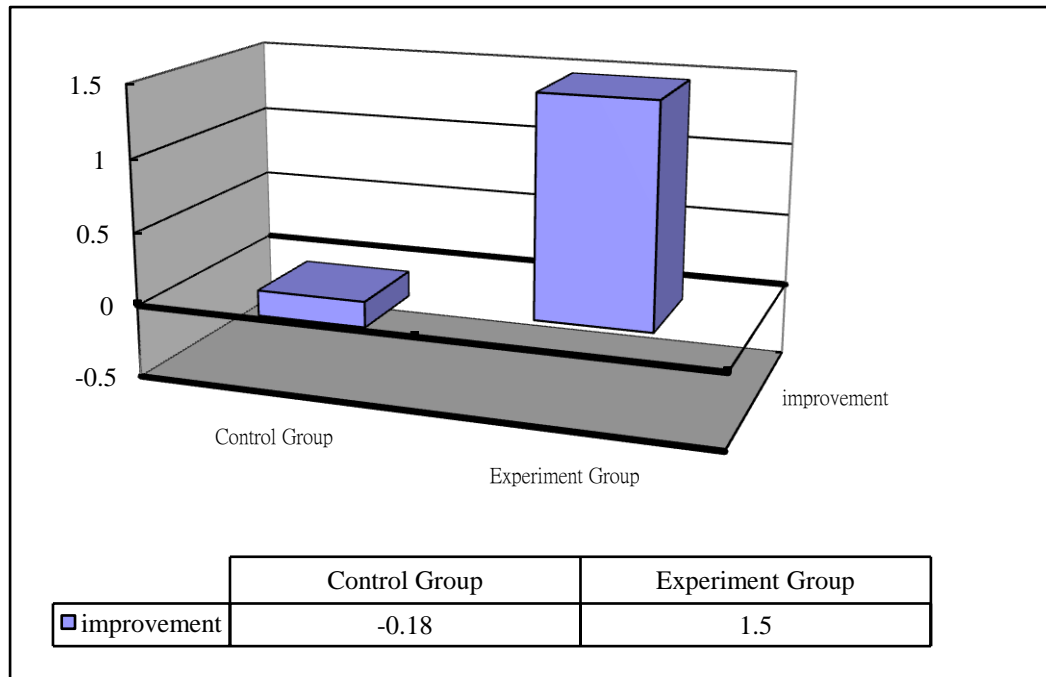
Figure 4.8 Test improvement in the experimental and control groups

Moreover, the comparison of fiction and nonfiction in the pretest and posttest was analyzed through the independent-samples *t*-test. There was no significant difference between the nonfiction pretest in the experimental group (M = 10.31, SD = 2.74) and the control group (M = 9.46, SD = 3.30) (*p* = .099). In other words, nonfiction listening abilities of the experiment and control group were about the same. (See Table 4.19)

Table 4.19

Independent-samples t-test results of pretest on16-nonfiction items in the experimental and control groups

Item	Group	Participants	Mean	SD	t	p
Nonfiction	（1）Experiment	68	10.31	2.74	1.66	.099
	（2）Control	74	9.46	3.30		

Since the nonfiction pretest scores were about the same in both the experimental and control groups, the researcher can measure the impact of additional training by comparing their posttest scores. Table 4.20 shows that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the nonfiction posttest. Figures 4.9 and 4.10 visualize the comparisons of the pretest and posttest in the experimental and control groups.

Table 4.20

Independent-samples t-test results of posttest on 16-nonfiction items in the experimental and control groups

Item	Group	Participants	Mean	SD	t	p
Nonfiction	（1）Experiment	68	11.24	3.00	3.66*	.000
	（2）Control	74	9.28	3.35		

*P<.05
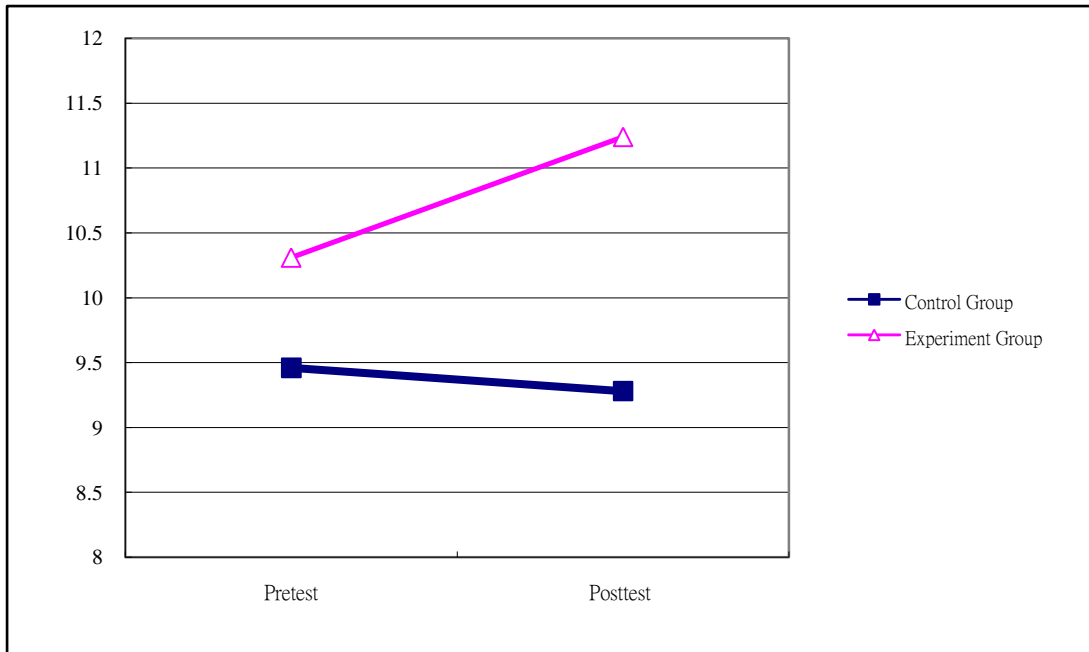
Figure 4.9 Comparison of the pretest and posttest in the experimental and control groups

	Control Group	Experiment Group
improvement	-0.18	0.93
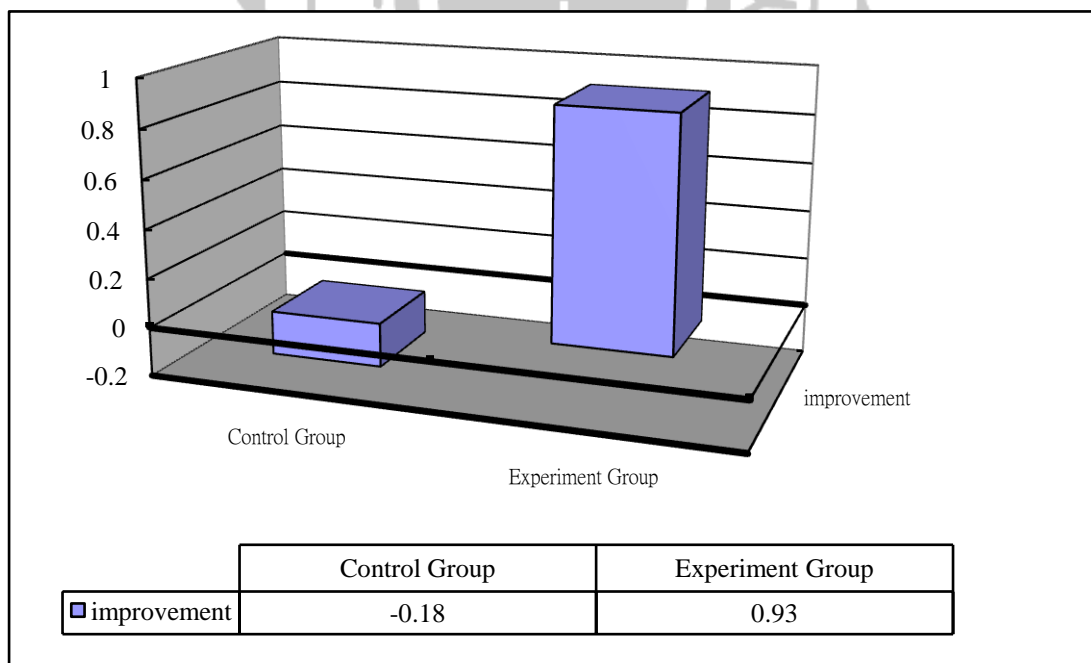
Figure 4.10 Test improvement on nonfiction in the experimental and control groups

In contrast, there was a significant difference in the fiction pretest score

between the experimental group (M = 10.29, SD = 2.78) and the control group (M =

9.04, SD = 2.88) (p = .009). The results indicated that students' pretest scores of

fiction varies considerably between the two groups. Students in the experimental

group seemed to have better ability in comprehending fiction texts than those in the

control group. Table 4.21 displays the t-test results of the two group's nonfiction and

fiction pretest scores.

Table 4.21
*Independent-samples t-test results of pretest on 16-fiction items in the experimental
and control groups*

Item	Group	Participants	Mean	SD	t	p
Fiction	（1）Experiment	68	10.29	2.78	2.64*	.009
	（2）Control	74	9.04	2.88		

*P< .05

As the experimental group's fiction pretest scores were higher than the control

group's, the impact of training have to be measured by comparing both groups'

improvements from the pretest. The results indicated the experimental groups'

improvement on the fiction test scores (M = 0.57) were not significantly more than

the control group (M = 0.00) (p = .124). Table 4.22 shows fiction improvement in the

experimental and control group. Figures 4.11 and 4.12 showed comparison of

increment between two groups.

Table 4.22

The analysis of the fiction improvement in the experimental and control groups

Item	Group	Participants	Mean of Difference	SD	*t*	*p*
Fiction	（1）Experimental	68	0.58	2.21	1.55	.124
Improvement	（2）Control	74	0.00	2.20		
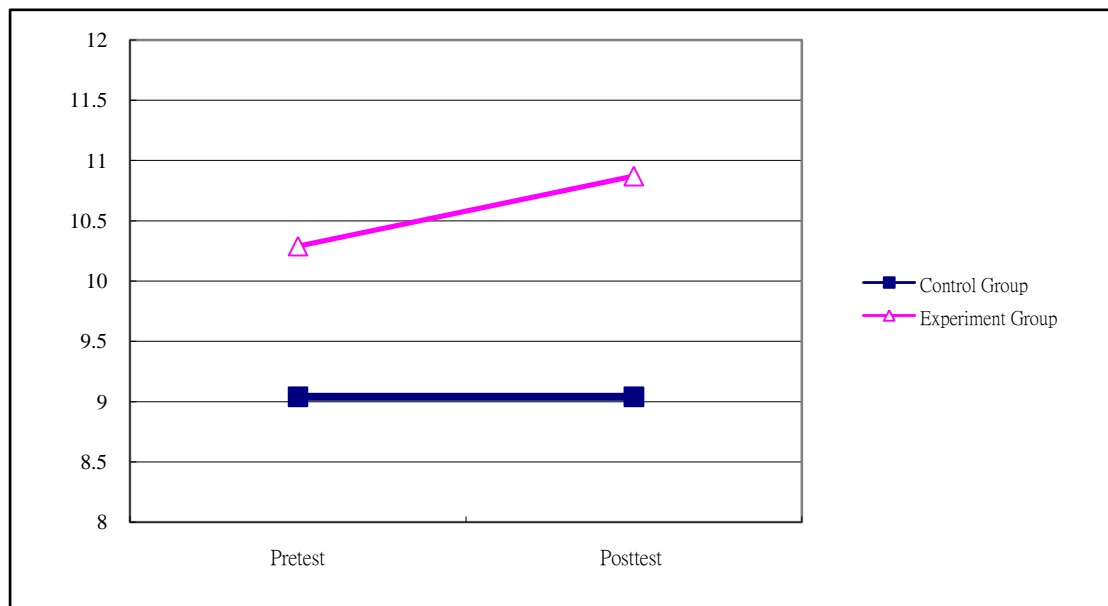
Figure 4.11 Comparison of fiction pretest and posttest in the experimental and control groups

	Control Group	Experiment Group
☐ improvement	0	0.58
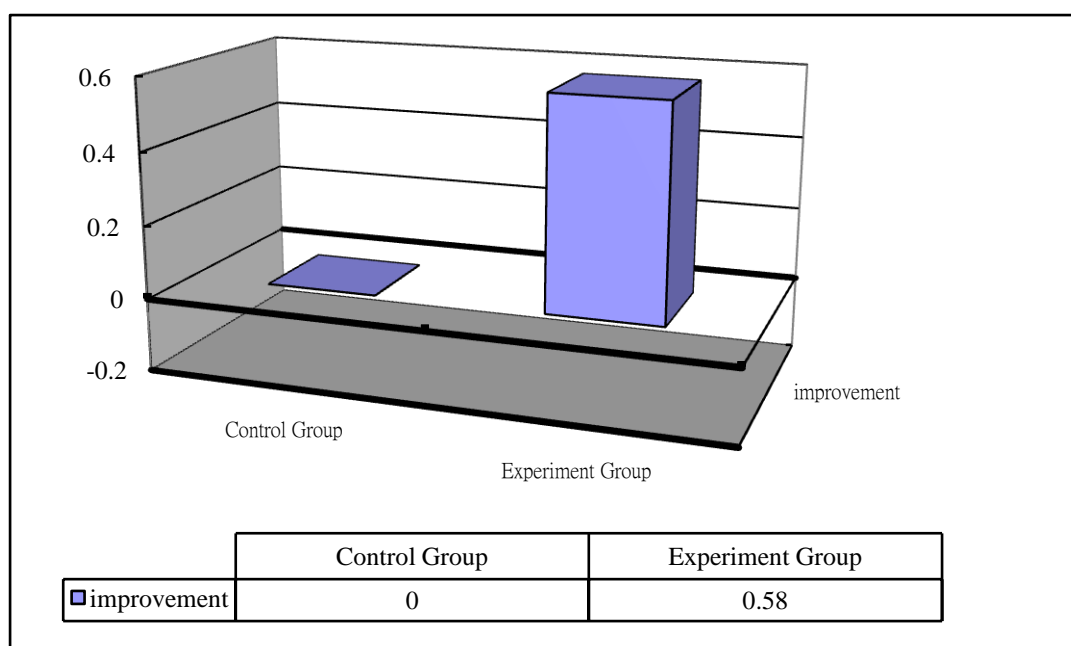
Figure 4.12 Test improvement on fiction in the experimental and control groups

4.5 Discussion

Having presented the statistics of the instrument, the researcher of the current study answers research questions and discusses the findings in the following sections. The five research questions of this study are stated as follows.

RQ 1: Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants perform significantly better in the listening comprehension test that requires both fiction and nonfiction listening comprehension than those who do not receive the training

RQ 2: Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants improve their fiction listening comprehension?

RQ 3: Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants

improve significantly more than those who do not receive the training in fiction

listening comprehension test?

RQ 4: Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants

improve their nonfiction listening comprehension?

RQ 5: Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants

improve significantly more than those who do not receive the training in nonfiction

listening comprehension test?

4.5.1 The Effectiveness of the Fiction Listening Training

The current research aims to examine the treatment effectiveness of fiction

listening on nonfiction listening comprehension. Meanwhile, the development on both

fiction and nonfiction listening comprehension will be explored. The following part of

this chapter is devoted to answer the research questions formulated for the research

goals.

The answer to the first research question: *Will the fiction listening training help*

the second-year high school participants perform significantly better in the listening

comprehension test that requires both fiction and nonfiction listening comprehension

than those who do not receive the training? is "Yes". The paired-samples t-test was

conducted to investigate whether participants' listening ability improved with and without fiction listening training. The results of the paired-samples t-test showed that there was a statistical difference in the experimental groups' performances before and after the treatment. Even if the independent-samples t-test revealed that the participants in the experimental group had better listening than the participants in the control group, the improvement of the posttest scores (M = 1.5) in the experimental group were significantly more than the control group (M = -0.18). Thus, after fiction listening training, the experimental group participants definitely performed much better than those without fiction listening training in the listening comprehension test. (See Table 4.18 and Figures 4.4 and 4.5)

The answer to the second research question, *"Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants improve their fiction listening comprehension?",* is "Yes". In order to answer the questions, the paired-samples t-test was used to examine whether participants' fiction listening comprehension improved after fiction listening training. The results as displayed in Table 4.16 indicated there was a significant difference between participants' fiction pretest and posttest abilities. Participants' fiction listening comprehension improved after four-month-long fiction listening training.

The answer to the third research question, *"Will the fiction listening training*

help the second-year high school participants improve significantly more than those

*who do not receive the training in fiction listening comprehension test?",*remains

inconclusive. In analyzing the results (Table 4.22), the researcher compared both the

experimental and control group's improvements from the pretest to posttest. The

results displayed experimental group did not (mean difference between the pretest and

the posttest = 0.57) significantly improve more than the control group (mean

difference = 0.00).

Nevertheless, it is clear that the experimental groups' fiction listening did

improve after fiction listening training (Table 4.16). Therefore, the researcher

conducted a one-way ANCOVA to further explore the condition of these participants'

fiction listening comprehension. The ANCOVA is a blending of analysis of variance

and linear regression. It can control a continuous variable called a covariate. In the

current study, the covariate was the participants' pretest score. By removing the

influence of the covariate, the corrected or adjusted scores of the experiment will be

performed again by the normal analysis of variance. Due to the removal of the

covariate influence, the result simply shows the relationship between the independent

variable (group) and the dependent variable (participants' posttest score).

Before conducting the ANCOVA, the homogeneity of the regression coefficient

was tested to examine whether the data could be analyzed. If the regression

coefficient is homogeneous, a one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) can be conducted; if the regression coefficient is not homogeneous, the Johnson-Neyman method will be conducted instead.

The analysis of fiction shows that there was a significant effect of the participants' fiction posttest scores after adjusting for participants' pretest scores of the instrument, $F (1,138) = 3.972$, $p = .048$, P <. 05. Table 4.23 illustrates the fiction homogeneity of ANCOVA regression analysis.

Table 4.23
Fiction homogeneity of ANCOVA regression analysis

Source	Type I Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
* Fiction (Pretest)	17.257	1	17.257	3.972	.048*
Errors	599.557	138	4.345		

*P < .05

This indicates that the regression slopes between the fiction pretest scores (covariate) and fiction posttest scores (dependent variable) are not similar across the groups. That is to say, the participants' fiction pretest scores and fiction posttest scores differed significantly because of the different groups. There was a violation of the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes. Therefore, the Johnson-Neyman method was used. The participants' fiction posttest scores probably varied owing to their fiction pretest scores.

At the 95% confidence level, the fiction posttest scores were significantly different between the experimental and control groups. As participants' fiction pretest scores were lower than 10.31, the participants' fiction posttest scores in the experimental group were higher than the participants' fiction posttest scores in the control group. In contrast, if the participants' fiction pretest scores were higher than 10.31, there was no difference between the participants' fiction posttest scores in the experimental group and control group. The scatterplots of two groups and the regression slopes are shown in Figure 4.13. That is to say, the participants who were already good fiction listeners (those with pretest scores higher than 10.31) did not improve significantly as result of listening training. In other words, listening training had a much stronger impact on those participants who were not good fiction listeners (those with pretest scores lower than10.31). Therefore, the answer to the third question remains inconclusive because listening training had varied effects on participants. The results suggest that the students' previous abilities are an important factor in determining how effective listening training will be and above all listening materials have to meet the level of the high achiever in order for them to make listening comprehension progress.
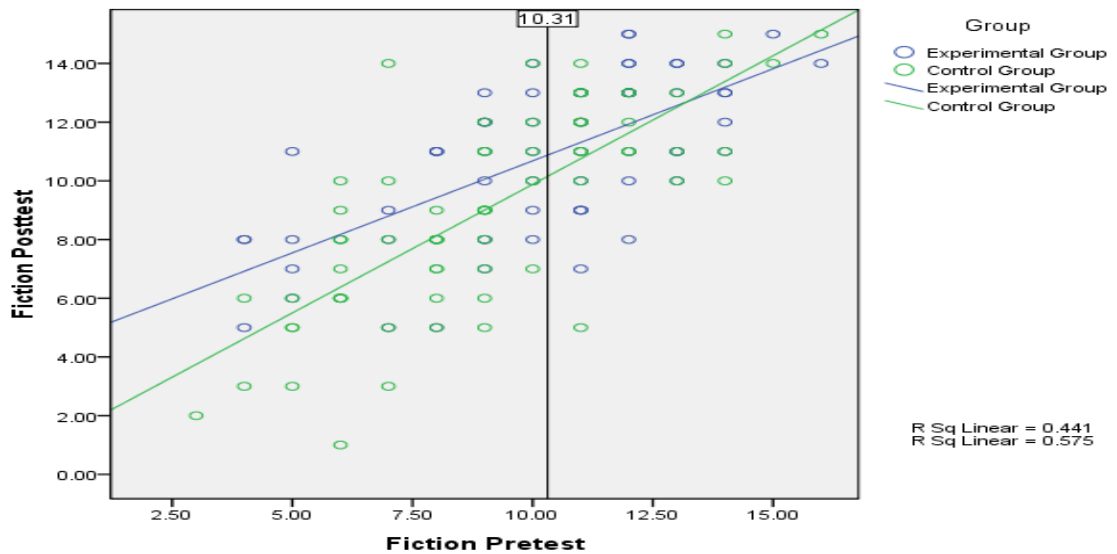
Figure 4.13 Distribution of pretest and posttest fiction scores and regression slopes

4.5.2 The Effectiveness of the Fiction Listening Training on Nonfiction Listening Comprehension

The answer to the fourth research question, *Will the fiction listening training help the second-year high school participants improve their nonfiction listening comprehension?* is "Yes." The paired-samples t-test showed that there was a statistically significant difference between mean scores of the experimental groups' nonfiction pretest and posttest. In other words, participants' nonfiction listening comprehension improved in that participants in the experimental group received listening training, despite the training material being fictional in nature.

In addition, an independent samples t-test was conducted to understand whether participants' fiction and nonfiction listening ability varied between the experimental group and the control group. The results indicated that participants of the

experimental group and the control group have varied fiction listening abilities. The

experimental groups' performance on fiction listening pretest were better than control

groups'. Subsequently, comparing participants' improvements in the experimental and

control group had to start from the pretest to posttest. The comparison revealed that

the improvement of the experimental group on nonfiction test scores (M = 0.93) was

significantly greater than that of the control group (M = 0.00). Put differently, fiction

listening training facilitated participants' overall listening comprehension. Hence, the

answer to the last research question: "*Will the fiction listening training help the*

second-year high school participants improve significantly more than those who do not

receive the training in nonfiction listening comprehension test" The answer is

considered to be Yes.

Lastly, the first hypothesis stated that *The experimental group will not*

significantly improve in non-fiction listening comprehension scores. However, this

hypothesis was not supported by the research findings. As discussed in section 4.4.2,

the results revealed a statistically significant difference between mean scores of the

nonfiction pretest and the nonfiction posttest. This finding indicated that participant

scores did improve in non-fiction listening. See section 4.4.2 for specific statistical

values.

According to Vandergrift and Goh (2012), participants' background knowledge

may be a strong predictor of listening comprehension. Since high school students in Taiwan are required by mandate to study in various academic subjects, most of which are non-fiction related, it is possible that their background knowledge played a significant role in facilitating high non-fiction test scores.

Additionally, the second hypothesis speculated that *The experimental group will improve more than the control group in fiction.* The data however did not support this hypothesis either. In fact, the results indicated the experimental groups' improvement on the fiction test scores was not significantly more than the improvements made by the control group. A detailed analysis of these findings is available in section 4.4.3.

Due to the infrequent implementation of the instrument (see Appendix A for details) the effect of the methodology may have been diluted. The eight treatments may have been too brief and/or spaced out to have added to the participant listening skills. Vandergrift and Goh (2012) suggested that listening should be practiced frequently.

The fact that the findings failed to support both hypotheses was unexpected. In research on L1, text structure is an important factor when it comes to reading comprehension. It was believed that this would be applicable for EFL learners listening comprehension. In addition, because of the frequent nature of employing fiction texts in EFL classrooms, it was expected that participants would achieve

higher scores in this genre. However, the results of the study indicate that the way that

listening is learned may need to be further investigated.

4.6 Comparisons with Previous Study

As described in Chapter Two, the only research available relating to listening to

fiction and nonfiction texts was conducted by Kraemer in 2009. The researcher

conducted a study to explore the effects of listening to nonfiction texts on first graders'

listening comprehension. All the participants, two experimental and two control

groups, were required to take a pretest with one fiction and nonfiction passage ,both

consisting of two implicit and four explicit open-ended questions to measure

participants' listening comprehension.

The experimental groups' participants listened to totally twelve overall

nonfiction passages read-aloud to them over a four-week treatment period, while the

control groups' participants received no treatment. After the four-week treatment, all

the participants had to take a posttest following the same format as the pretest. The

results suggested that the experimental participant improved significantly more than

the control group on nonfiction listening comprehension but they did not make any

progress on fiction listening comprehension. Therefore, Kramer advocated that young

students should be exposed to nonfiction texts earlier to better equip them to handle

the abundance of nonfiction texts later in their education.

In contrast to Kramer's study, the researcher of the current study found that listening to fiction facilitated the participants' overall listening comprehension, more specifically to their nonfiction listening comprehension. It is important to note that improvement related to fiction listening performance was subject to the participants' previous fiction listening ability. In brief, the fiction listening comprehension of the low achievers improved while the fiction listening ability of the high achievers remained virtually the same. This suggests a new variable for future studies: the students' current listening ability may be as important as the type of text (fiction or nonfiction) used in teaching. The students that weren't challenged did not improve as much as those who were challenged by the training materials. Ideally, challenging students of varying levels would more effectively improve their listening comprehension.

Furthermore, the current study in combination with Kramer's study implies that listening training—consisting either of fiction or nonfiction materials—facilitates nonfiction listening comprehension. Kramer concluded that teachers should use nonfiction texts more frequently at school. If students are exposed to nonfiction texts earlier, they are more capable to deal with the extensive nonfiction reading assignments that occur in their later years. In addition, nonfiction listening

comprehension in L2 is decidedly as essential as nonfiction reading comprehension in

L1. While Kramer's study attempts to illustrate the importance of a specialized

nonfiction listening training, the current study demonstrates that nonfiction listening

abilities can improve as a result of listening training on fiction texts.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter is divided into several parts. The researcher has summarized the findings of the current study. Next, pedagogical implications are illustrated. The limitations of the current study and suggestions for future research are presented at the end of the chapter.

5.1 Summary of the Research and Major Findings

The purpose of the current study was to explore if whether training high school students in listening to fiction material would help facilitate their fiction and nonfiction listening ability. The participants were 142 11th-grade students from four classes (Classes 501, 502, 503, and 504) of Taichung SY Senior High School. Classes 503 and 504 were the experimental groups, and Classes 501 and 502 were the control groups. The participants in the experimental group received fiction listening training over the course of the four months. Before the fiction listening training began, the experimental and control groups needed to complete a multiple-choice pretest with 16 fiction and 16 nonfiction questions. During the four-month-long period, the participants in the experimental group listened to a detective story and completed a worksheet every two to three weeks while the control group did not receive any training. Four months later,

the participants of the experimental group and the control group took a multiple-choice posttest identical to the pretest, having the same 16 fiction and 16 nonfiction questions but in a different order.

Three paired-samples *t*-tests were conducted to understand the impact of fiction listening training on the participants' overall listening comprehension, fiction and nonfiction listening comprehension. Furthermore, two independent-samples *t*-tests examined whether the participants' fiction or nonfiction listening comprehension in the experimental group had improved significantly more than those in the control group. Lastly, an ANCOVA analyzed participants' fiction listening improvements.

The results revealed that the experimental groups' listening comprehension improved after the four-month-long fiction listening training. More specifically, the fiction listening training was shown to facilitate both fiction and nonfiction listening comprehension. The degree of fiction listening improvement is inconclusive however because those participants who scored high on the fiction pretest did not make significant progress as did those who scored lower in the fiction pretest. That is to say the treatment was not effective for those who began with better listening comprehension skills. On the other hand, the control group, who attended 6 hours of English class every week but did not receive special training in listening, did not make any progress on the posttest.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

In recent years, many reading researchers have emphasized the importance of nonfiction texts and advocated for greater nonfiction teaching for L1 learners (Caswell & Duke, 1998; Dorian, 1994; Duke, 2003, 2004; Duke & Bennett-Armistead, 2003; Maloch, 2008; Yopp & Yopp, 2000). Duke and Bennett-Armistead (2003) argued that students should be exposed to nonfiction texts earlier and more frequently because nonfiction texts are ubiquitous in society. Students have to deal with a great amount of nonfiction texts in their later education. Moreover, nonfiction texts offer an alternative option for students who may prefer reading nonfiction texts to fiction texts. Finally, students broaden their knowledge of the natural and social world through reading nonfiction texts.

Teachers should not overlook the importance of nonfiction listening training. While the listening abilities of L1 learners have been developed successfully in their natural learning environment, L2 learners must make a deliberate effort to build up their listening ability. Unlike L1 learners, developing a strong listening skill is more difficult for L2 listeners because they have to deal with various factors influencing their listening comprehension such as vocabulary, syntax, and background knowledge. Aside from the current study, literature in the related field has not been conclusive in determining whether text structure could be one of the factors that influence L2 learners'

listening comprehension. While the results of the current study seem to suggest listening training, related to both fiction and nonfiction, helps improve listening comprehension, educators must remember this study was only a preliminary step into an unexplored pedagogical environment. The necessity of nonfiction listening skills may in fact be proven in the future.

In addition, selecting suitable and challenging materials is an important step to help students of various levels. The participants with lower fiction listening ability showed significant improvement. The fiction training material did not help the participants with higher listening ability. The reason may be that the material was at or below their level. Therefore, another pedagogical implication is that students are more likely to improve if they are exposed to i+1 or suitably higher material.

Moreover, it is hoped that this study will raise awareness among EFL teachers that teaching nonfiction, through either reading or listening training, is useful because it seems to benefit fiction comprehension. Given that previous researchers also found that some students prefer reading nonfiction and that nonfiction is prevalent in society, teachers should teach both to offer broader opportunities for students.

Furthermore, as listening has increasingly become important in the language classroom, teachers need to pay more attention to enhance students' listening abilities. The Ministry of Education in Taiwan advocated that listening is fundamental for

learning a language, so an English listening section will be added to the basic competence test for junior high school students starting in 2014. Increasingly, university entrance and graduation-qualifying exams might begin to treat listening as an important aspect of language proficiency. Therefore, the current study offers teachers different perspectives to enhance students' listening comprehension of various text structures. Not only will students' listening abilities be facilitated, but their potential for educational and professional growth will be fortified.

5.3 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Research

The current study sheds light on the efficacy of fiction listening on both fiction and nonfiction listening comprehension and raises awareness among EFL teachers that both nonfiction and fiction are equally important channels for L2 learners' listening input. However, the study does have some limitations. First, the pretest and posttest were the same. The participants in the study may have remembered the content because of the exposure from the pretest. Meanwhile they may still remember some of their old answers, meaning they did not have to listen carefully when they heard the text again in the posttest. To further investigate the changes in participants' listening comprehension, future researchers should explore the option of using different questions with the same difficulty level during the pretest and posttest.

Moreover, the current study did not collect qualitative data such as conducting questionnaires or interviewing the participants to understand the participants' preferences for fiction or nonfiction, or to assess their opinions on whether listening to fiction or nonfiction is more difficult. Such data would help researchers better understand whether L2 learners prefer fiction listening or nonfiction listening.

Lastly, the current study explores the effect of fiction listening on nonfiction listening since L2 classrooms generally utilized fiction listening exercises. The original intent of this study was to determine whether teaching listening skills for one text structure could benefit the other. Since the research of nonfiction listening in L2 has not been thoroughly explored, future research should build upon the work of the current study to explore the effectiveness of nonfiction listening training on both fiction and nonfiction comprehension, further shedding light on the importance of text structure in an L2 learning environment.

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Appendix A

Listening   Portfolio聽力測驗歷程檔案

Student Background 學生背景	Two classes (Class 503,504) of Taichung SY senior high students who major in social science. 兩班台中市高中社會組學生。
Objectives 作業目標	To assess students' listening comprehension ability through listening to a suspicious story. 藉由反覆聆聽懸疑故事評量其聽力能力。
Background 作業背景	This is a murder story. Imagine that you are an assistant of detective K who wants to find the answers to the murder; you need to find out how, who, and why for her. Now listen to the background of the scene and the stories of five suspects as well as how the murderer kills the victim. Let's start the story. 這是一個懸疑故事，想像你/妳是個偵探 K 的助手，請聽故事背景，五個嫌疑犯的說詞，以及殺人手法以了解此命案，精采的故事即將開始。

Task	The length of the record	The topic of the record	Level
1	2 minutes 6 seconds	Where 地點	★
2	3 minutes 59 seconds	Clues 線索	★
3	4 minutes 9 seconds	Elizabeth Gray's story 伊麗莎白·葛瑞的說詞	★★
4	4 minutes 14 seconds	Colonel Steven's story 史蒂文斯上校的說詞	★★
5	4 minutes 8 seconds	Angela Everett's story 安琪拉·艾佛瑞的說詞	★★
6	4 minutes 14 seconds	Andrew Selkirk's story 安德魯·謝爾柯克的說詞	★★
7	5 minutes 36 second	Nancy Baker's story 南西·貝克的說詞	★★★
8	7 minutes 13 seconds	How 行兇手法	★★★

| Requirement 作業須知 | 1. Students need to listen to the CD and finish the worksheet. 學生必須聽CD並且按照規定的日期完成學習單。 |

1. Students need to listen to the CD and finish the worksheet.
學生必須聽CD並且按照規定的日期完成學習單。

2. Students need to return the worksheet to the teacher on time.
學生完成任務後必須準時繳回學習單給老師。

3. You can redo the task if you think the grades are too low. Teacher will take the higher grade.
學生若覺分數太低可重做,分數取較高者。

4. ***Ten points will be taken off if you hand in the assignment late.***
遲交一次,扣該作業10分。

Steps
步驟

1. Listen to the vocabulary and examples carefully first.
先仔細聆聽單字以及例句。

2. Then listen to the story.
接著聆聽故事。

3. After listening to the story, answer the questions according to the instruction.
聽完故事後,依照指示回答問題。

Self evaluation
自我審查

1.

次數	1	2	3	4	5
聽懂程度	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆

0 star: Do not understand the content completely.
0顆星:完全聽不懂。
One star: Able to understand the main idea, but fail to understand details.
1顆星:聽得懂大意,但聽不懂細節。
Two stars: Able to understand the main idea, and understand part of the details.
2顆星:聽得懂大意,且聽得懂部分細節。
Three stars: Understand the content completely.
3顆星:完全聽得懂。
2.
你認為Word bank 裡提供的單字及例句,對於你理解故事情節有多少助?
(1分為全無幫助;10分為非常有幫助,請在你認為的分數上打圈)

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

Schedule   No assignment during the week of school exams.

計畫表   考試當週不需繳交作業。

	Date	Worksheet Returned
1	3/3	Unit 1
2	3/17	Unit 2
3	3/31	Unit 3
4	4/14	Unit 4
5	4/28	Unit 5
6	5/5	Unit 6
7	5/19	Unit 7
8	6/2	Unit 8

■   If you have any question, contact me at g96120005@thu.edu.tw

or g95120009@thu.edu.tw

同學如有任何問題，歡迎來信詢問。

Unit 1 : **Where地點**

Listen to the following vocabulary carefully, then listen to where the murder happened.

Word Bank

1. hall (n.) 門廊、門廳　　Leave your hat in the hall.
把你的帽子放在門廊。

2. plan (n.) 平面圖　　Here is a floor plan of this house.
這是這間房子的平面圖。

3. report (n.) 報告　　Doctor's report shows that his physical condition is getting worse.
醫生的報告指出，他的身體狀況越來越糟了。

4. liquor (n.) 烈酒　　Are liquors available in this place?
這裡可以買的到烈酒嗎？

5. curtain (n.) 窗簾　　Please draw the curtain and put the lights on.
請把窗簾關上並把燈打開。

6. bookcase (n.) 書櫃　　He took a book from the bookcase near the door.
他從靠近門邊的書櫃裡拿了一本書。

7. dictaphone (n.) 口述錄音機　　He used to bring dictaphone with him before.

他過去常帶著口述錄音筆在身邊。

8. carpet (n.) 地毯　　There is a green carpet in the hall.
門廳裡有一個綠色的地毯。

9. outline (n.) 輪廓、輪廓圖　　The outline of Taiwan suggests a sweet potato.

台灣的輪廓像一個地瓜。

-------------------------**Now listen to where the murder happened!**---------------------

'Longacres'

Q1. How many rooms are there in Mr. Gray's house, Lougacres, upstairs and downstairs? What are they? 5% per item

Upstairs: _____

Downstairs: _____

Q2. According to K's report, help the policeman draw the photograph of the study.
(The picture should include 15 items: *door, refrigerator, liquor cabinet, clock, picture, window, curtain, desk, chair, bookcase, telephone, dictaphone, papers, carpet, outline of Mr. Gray's body*.) 5% per item

door

● 自我審查表：

次數	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
聽懂程度	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆

1. 你認為work bank 裡提供的單字以及例句，對於你理解故事情節有多少幫助?

(1分為全無幫助；10分為非常有幫助，請在你認為的分數上打圈)

1　　2　　3　　4　　5　　6　　7　　8　　9　　10

2. 假設work bank裡的單字例句全部都在聽力考題前唸給你的話，你認為對於理解考題會有幫助嗎?

(1分為全無幫助；10分為非常有幫助，請在你認為的分數上打圈)

1　　2　　3　　4　　5　　6　　7　　8　　9　　10

Unit 2 : Clues 線索

Listen to the following vocabulary carefully, and then listen to the clues the police and Detective K have found.

Word Bank

10. police doctor 法醫 — The little boy says he wants to be a police doctor in the future.
小男孩說他長大要當法醫。

11. die of position 死於中毒 — The doctor reported that he was died of position.
醫生指出，他是死於中毒。

12. stab (v.) 刺、戳、叉 — She stabbed the meat with her fork.
她用她的叉子叉肉。

13. sharp weapon 尖銳的兇器 — Sharp weapons are not allowed to bring to school.
學校禁止攜帶尖銳的兇器。

14. facedown 面部朝下 — When we found him, he was on the bed facedown.
當我們找到他時，他躺在床上面部朝下。

15. fingerprint (n.) 指紋 — The police can't find any fingerprints here.
在這裡，警察找不到任何指紋。

16. secret passage 秘密通道 — The report goes that there's a secret passage in the Office of the President.
傳聞總統府裡有個秘密通道。

17. drink (n.) 酒、飲料 — He always has a drink after work.
他總是在下班後去喝酒。

-------------**Now listen to what the police and Detective K have found!**--------------

"We know three things," the policeman said.

111

Q1. The police have already found out three things, what are they? 12% per item

The first thing: _____

The second thing: _____

The third thing: _____

Q2. What did and didn't Detective K find out? 4% per item

a

b

c

Blood and water
on the carpet.

d

e

f

g

h

What did Detective K found?

_____

What didn't Detective K find?

Q3. Based on Mr. Gray's habit, mark the time on the clock and rearrange the picture in order. 4% per item

a

b

c

d

___→___→___→___

● 自我審查表：

次數	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
聽懂程度	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆
3. 你認為work bank 裡提供的單字以及例句，對於你理解故事情節有多少幫助? (1分為全無幫助；10分為非常有幫助，請在你認為的分數上打圈) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10									

Unit 3：Elizabeth Gray's Story 伊莉莎白‧葛瑞的說詞

Listen to the following vocabulary carefully, and then listen to Elizabeth Gray's story.

Word Bank

18. quiet (adj.) 安靜的、輕聲的　　Everyone went quiet when he came in.
當他走進來時，大家都安靜了。

19. out of the army 離開軍中、退伍　　He was just out of the army then.
那時候他剛從軍中退伍。

20. suicide (n.) 自殺、自殺行為　　Police believe he committed suicide.
警察相信他是自殺的。

21. cannot bring any good 沒有好處　　Violence cannot bring any good to a family.
暴力對一個家庭來說是沒有好處的。

---------------------------Now listen to Elizabeth Gray's story!-----------------------

Q1. What is Mrs. Gray's possible motive for the murder? 10%

Answer: _____

Q2. Listen to the dialogue again, and write the sentences in the blanks. 80%

■ **After dinner---**

a _____

b _____

c _____

d _____

e _____   g _____   h _____
f _____   i _____

j _____

115
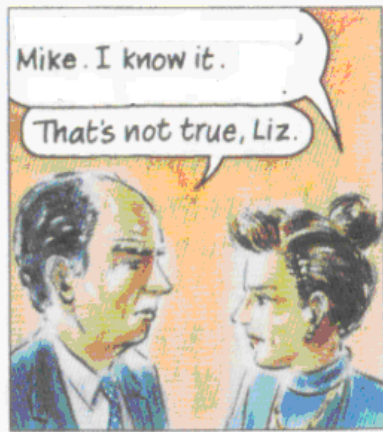
Q3. Make your choice. Mrs. Gray probably murdered her husband because: 10%

Answer: _____

● 自我審查表：

次數	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
聽懂程度	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆

4. 你認爲work bank 裡提供的單字以及例句，對於你理解故事情節有多少幫助?

(1分爲全無幫助；10分爲非常有幫助，請在你認爲的分數上打圈)

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

Unit 4 : Colonel Steven's Story 史蒂文斯上校的說詞

Listen to the following vocabulary carefully, and then listen to Colonel Steven's story.

Word Bank

22. colonel (n.) 上校

He is a colonel of the US army.
他是美軍上校。

23. family firm 家族企業

That's Mr. Wang's family firm.
那是王先生的家族企業。

24. lend (v.) 借貸、出借

Banks lend money and charge interest.
銀行貸款取息。

25. gamble (v.) 賭博

He has gambled away half his wealth.
他賭博賭輸了一半的財產。

26. sharply (adv.) 尖銳地、銳聲地

"Watch your attitude", he said sharply.
「注意你的態度」，他嚴厲地說。

27. lose (v.) 失掉、輸掉

We lost the game.
我們輸掉了比賽。

28. angry with 對...生氣

She was angry with her husband.
她在對她的丈夫生氣。

29. pay back 償還

How much do I have to pay back to you?
我需要還你多少錢？

30. engineer (n.) 工程師、工兵

He was an engineer when he was 30.
他30歲的時後是個工程師。

--------------------------Now listen to Colonel Steven's story!-----------------------

Q1. What is Colonel Steven's possible motive for the murder? 10%

Answer: _____

Q2. Listen to the dialogue again, and write the sentences in the blanks. 80%

■ Gambled and lost---

a _____   b _____

                            c _____

                            d _____

e _____

f _____

g _____

h _____

i _____

j _____

Q3. Make your choice. Colonel Steven probably murdered Mr. Gray because: 10%

Answer: _____

■　自我審查表：

次數	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
聽懂程度	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆

5. 你認為work bank 裡提供的單字以及例句，對於你理解故事情節有多少幫助?

(1分為全無幫助；10分為非常有幫助，請在你認為的分數上打圈)

　　　　1　　　2　　　3　　　4　　　5　　　6　　　7　　　8　　　9　　　10

Unit 5 : Angela Everett's Story安琪拉‧艾佛瑞的說詞

Listen to the following vocabulary carefully, and then listen to Angela Everett's story.

Word Bank

31. freezer (n.) 冰箱的冷凍庫   She opened the freezer.
她打開冰箱的冷凍庫。

32. ice-tray (n.) 製冰格   She took out the ice-tray.
她拿出製冰格。

33. fight (v.) 爭吵、爭執   She fought with him.
她和他爭吵。

34. will (n.) 遺囑   He left a lot of money to you, in his will.
他在他的遺囑裡留了一大筆錢給妳。

35. jealous (adj.) 嫉妒的   "Jealously?" Miss Everett asked K sharply.
「嫉妒嗎？」愛佛瑞小姐尖銳地問K。

36. clear (adj.) 晴朗的   It was a cold night, but it was clear.
夜很涼，但天空很晴朗。

--------------------------**Now listen to Angela Everett's story!**----------------------

Q1. What is Angela Everett's possible motive for the murder? 10%

Answer:_____

Q2. Listen to the dialogue again, and write the sentences in the blanks. 80%

■   In the car on the way home---

a _____
_____
b _____
_____
c _____
_____

d _____

_____

e _____

_____

f _____

_____

g _____

_____

h _____

_____

i _____

_____

j _____

_____

Q3. Make your choice. Angela Everett probably murdered Mr. Gray because :   10%

Answer:_____

● 自我審查表：

次數	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
聽懂程度	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆
6. 你認為work bank 裡提供的單字以及例句，對於你理解故事情節有多少幫助? (1分為全無幫助；10分為非常有幫助，請在你認為的分數上打圈) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10										

Unit 6：Andrew Selkirk's Story 安德魯・謝爾柯克的說詞

Listen to the following vocabulary carefully, and then listen to Andrew Selkirk's story.

Word Bank

37. cool (adj.) 冷淡的

The voice was cool, aristocratic.
聲音冷漠而傲慢。

38. aristocratic (adj.) 傲慢的

39. figure (n.) 人影、人形、人物

K looked at that cool, aristocratic figure in his fine suit.

40. suit (n.) 西裝、一套衣服

K看著這名冷漠傲慢的男士，一身剪裁合身的高級西裝。

41. at all 全然、不管怎樣

But I didn't like Michael at all.
可是我一點都不喜歡麥可。

42. spend (n.) 花費

He liked women, and he spent a lot of money on them.
他喜歡女人，且在她們身上花很多錢。

43. silly (adj.) 愚笨的

He wanted to leave money to that silly girl, Angela Everett.
他想把錢留給那個愚蠢的女孩安琪拉・艾佛瑞。

44. behind (prep.) 在…後面

Behind that cool face, you hated him?
在你冷漠的臉孔背後，你其實很恨他？

45. touch (v.) 觸摸

Did you touch the body?
你有觸摸屍體嗎？

--------------------------Now listen to Colonel Steven's story!-----------------------

Q1. What is Andrew Selkirk's possible motive for the murder? 10%

Answer:_____

**Q2. Listen to the dialogue again, and write the sentences in the blanks. 80%**

a _____

b _____

c _____

d _____

e _____
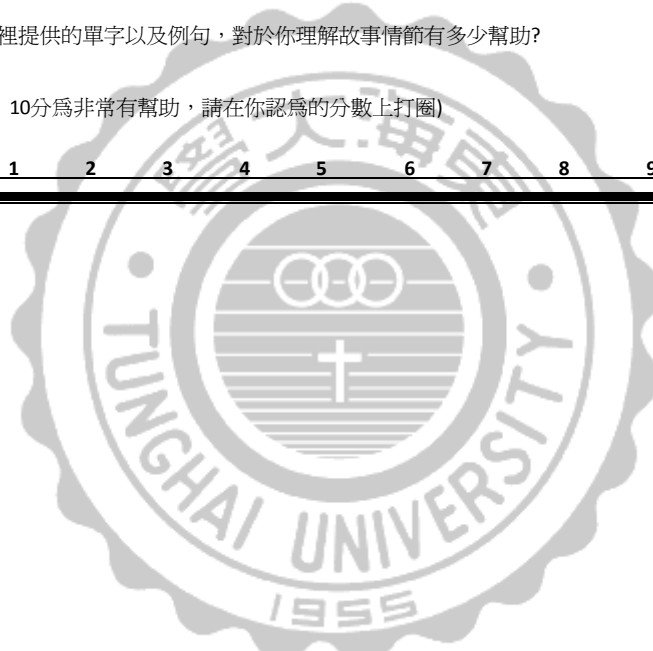
f _____

g _____

h _____

i _____

j _____

Q3. Make your choice. Andrew Selkirk probably murdered Mr. Gray because: 10%

Answer: _____

● 自我審查表：

次數	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
聽懂程度	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆

7. 你認為work bank 裡提供的單字以及例句，對於你理解故事情節有多少幫助?

(1分為全無幫助；10分為非常有幫助，請在你認為的分數上打圈)

      1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

Unit 7 : Nancy Baker's Story南西・貝克的說詞

Listen to the following vocabulary carefully, and then listen to Nancy Baker's story.

Word Bank

46. since then 自那時後起
I have worked for them since then.
我從那時後起就爲他們工作了。

47. serve (v.) 服務、服侍
I served him for twenty-five years.
我爲他服務已有25年了。

48. loyal (adj.) 忠誠的、忠心的
You're very loyal to this family, Mrs. Baker.
貝克太太，你對這個家庭非常忠心。

49. wicked
Miss Everett is a wicked woman.
艾佛瑞小姐是個邪惡的女人。

---------------------------Now listen to Nancy Baker's story!----------------------

Q1. What is Nancy Baker's possible motive for the murder? 10%
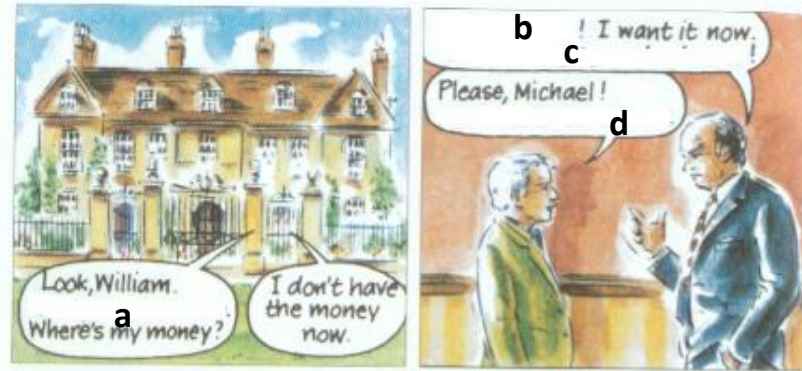

Answer: _____

Q2. Listen to the dialogue again, and write the sentences in the blanks. 80% (bonus +5%)

■ A letter---

a _____
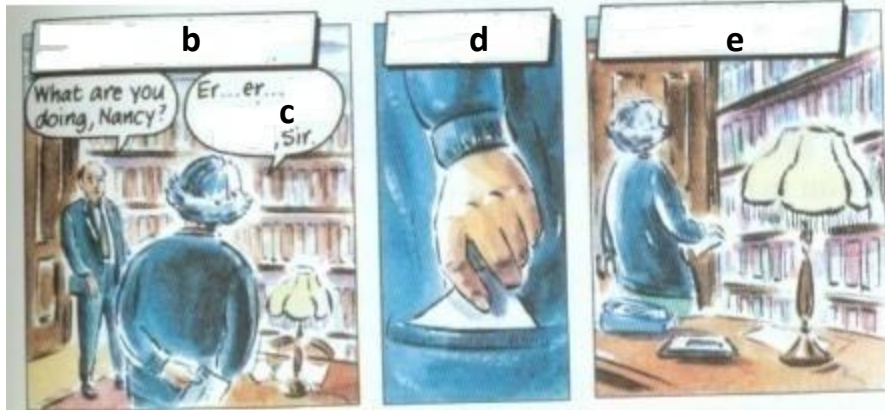
b _____

c _____

d _____

e _____

f _____

Q3. According to Nancy Baker's story, answer the following questions with _complete answers_. 30%

a. Who went to the library after dinner?

_____

b. Where's Miss Everett (Angela Everett) that night? Did she work with Mr. Gray?

_____

c. What did Nancy Backer feel about Angela Everett?

_____

d. Where's the letter now?

_____

e. Instead of cleaning, what was Nancy Backer doing then?

_____

f. Why did Nancy Backer work for such a long time in Gray's family?

_____

Q4. Make your choice. Nancy Baker probably murdered Mr. Gray because: 10%

Answer: _____

● 自我審查表：

次數	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
聽懂程度	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆
8. 你認爲work bank 裡提供的單字以及例句，對於你理解故事情節有多少幫助? (1分爲全無幫助；10分爲非常有幫助，請在你認爲的分數上打圈) 1　　2　　3　　4　　5　　6　　7　　8　　9　　10										

Unit 8：How行兇手法

Listen to the following vocabulary carefully, and then listen to how X killed Mr. Gray.

Word Bank

50. in line with 與...齊高
The freezer is in line with Mr. Gray's heart.
冷凍庫的位置和葛瑞先生的心臟齊高。

51. pour　　(v.)　　傾倒（水、酒）
He poured some Whiskey into a glass and then water
他倒了一些威士忌到玻璃杯裡，然後加一些水。

52. trigger　　(v.)　觸發、觸動
He triggered a mechanism in line with his heart.
他觸動了與他心臟位置齊高的機關。

53. mechanism　　(n.)　機關、機械裝置

54. icicle (n.) 冰柱
This mechanism shot an icicle into Mr. Gray's heart.
這個機關射出一支冰柱刺入葛瑞先生的心臟。

55. disappear　　(v.)　消失、不見
It disappeared, and there was only water.

它消失無蹤，只剩下水跡。

56. noise (n.) 噪音
She heard a noise.
她聽到聲響。

57. whisper　　(v.)　低聲說、悄悄地說
"Don't move!" K whispered.

「別動！」K輕聲地說。

58. judo (n.) 柔道
She knew her judo.
她擅長柔道。

59. karate (n.) 空手道
Then a sharp karate chop!
接著，又是一記敏捷的空手道。

60. chop (n.) 劈

61. die away 逐漸消失
"I didn't think..." and his voice died away.
「我不認為...」他的聲音越來越弱。

62. string (n.) 繩線
This string went on the ice-tray.
用繩線套在製冰格上。

Word Bank

63. powerful (adj.) 有威力的   It's a powerful bow.
                                      這是一支威力強大的弩弓。

64. bow (n.) 弓

---------------------------**Now listen to how X killed Mr. Gray!**------------------------

Q1. Arrange the following pictures for Detective K to help her clarify what exactly happened between 9:00~9:25. 5% per picture

__→__→__→__→__→__→__→__→__→__→__→__→__→__

129
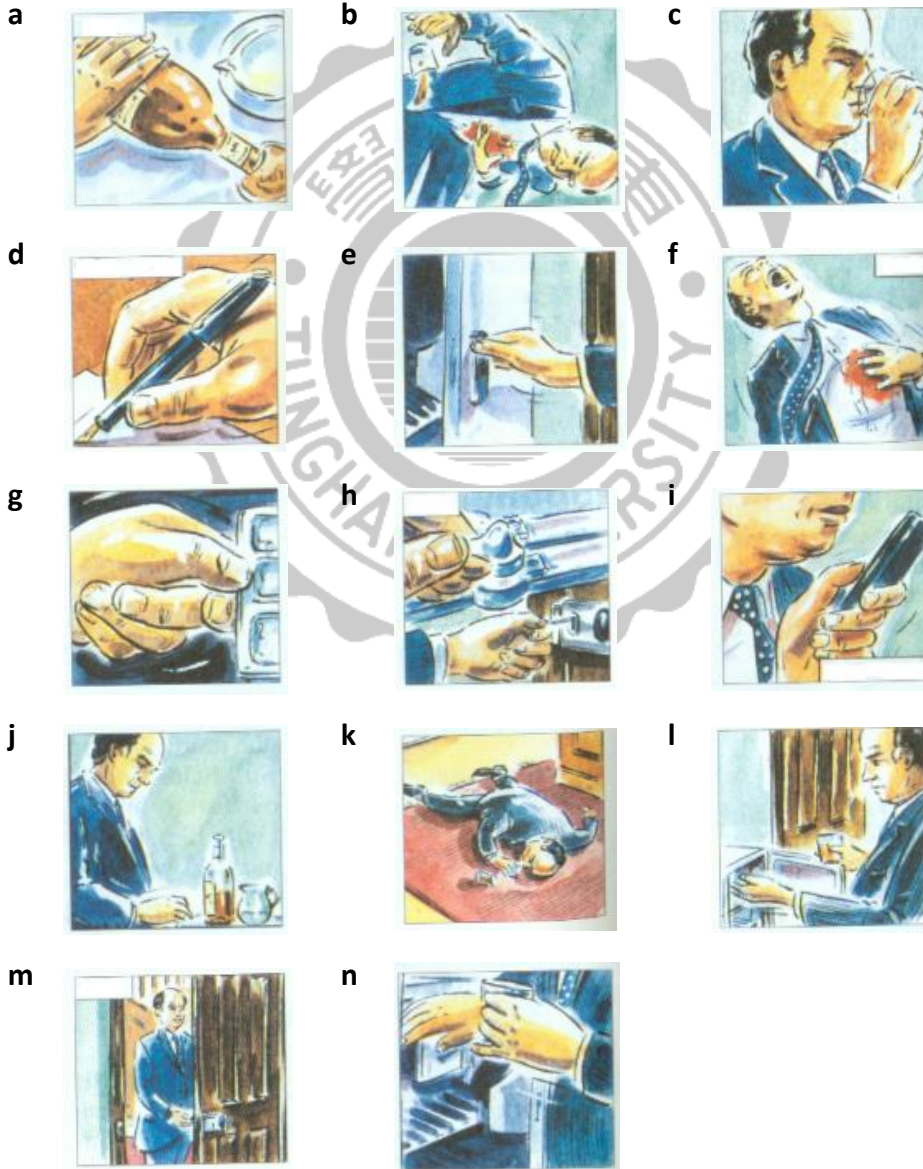
Q2. Help Detective K to reconstruct the scene. Draw the location of *Mr. Gray*, *refrigerator*, *wall*, *mechanism*, and *the detail of the mechanism*.

- **The location of *Mr. Gray*, *refrigerator*, *wall*, and *the mechanism*.**

- **The detail of the mechanism**

Q3. Now, based on your drawing, describe briefly (*at least 50 words*) how the mechanism had killed Mr. Gray in your own words.

- 自我審查表：

次數	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
聽懂程度	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆	☆☆☆

9. 你認爲work bank 裡提供的單字以及例句，對於你理解故事情節有多少幫助?

(1分爲全無幫助；10分爲非常有幫助，請在你認爲的分數上打圈)

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

Appendix B

Transcript of Listening Portfolio Package

Task 1

What happened?

The date: November 17th, 1982

The time now: 10:15

The place: A large country house in New England.

Mr. Gray had dinner with four of the other people at eight o'clock this evening. Then he went to his study. The time was nine o'clock. He locked the door from the inside. He closed the window, too, and locked it from the inside.

At 9:30, the housekeeper, Mrs. Baker, took some coffee to his room. She knocked on the door. Mr. Gray didn't answer, so she knocked again and shouted. He didn't answer, so she called three of the other people. They knocked on the door, too, and shouted, but Mr.Gray didn't open it. They broke down the study door and went in. They saw Mr. Gray's body on the floor. Mr. Gray was dead.

Mrs. Gray called the police. The time was 9:40. The police arrived at 9:50, and K arrived with them.

What the police found?

Now it's 10:15, and K is in the study. Mr. Gray's dead body isn't here now. The police took photographs of the study and photographs of the body. Then they took the body to the police station. A police doctor has already looked at the body. The police already know the answer to three important questions.

1. Mr. Gray didn't die of poison. He drank some whisky at 9:20, but there wasn't any poison in the whisky and there wasn't any poison in Mr. Gray's blood.

2. X stabbed Mr. Gray through the heart with a sharp weapon.

3. Mr. Gray died at 9:25.

A police man called K from the police station. "We know three things," the policeman said. "The first thing is: it wasn't poison. The second thing is: it was a sharp weapon-through the heart. The third thing is : Mr Gray died at 9:25."

Mr Gray's house

The study and the murder:

The number happened in Mr. Gray's study. Here is a police photograph of the study. Look at it carefully and describe it. Then read K's report.

(K's report :)

Mr. Gray's study is large. There is one door into the room. Next to the door there is

a refrigerator. Next to the refrigerator there is a liquor cabinet. There is a clock on the cabinet. On the wall near the cabinet there is a picture. On the right there is a window behind the curtain. In the middle of the room there is a big desk. There is a chair behind the desk. There is a bookcase behind the chair. There are some things on the desk. There is a telephone. Next to the telephone there is a Dictaphone. There are some papers next to the Dictaphone. There is a carpet on the floor.

Mr. Gray's body was on the carpet. There is a police outline of the body on the floor. The feet are near the refrigerator. There was a whisky glass near Mr. Gray's right hand. The glass was empty.

Task 2

The clues

Now look at the clues carefully and describe them. Then read K's report. K found these things: Blood and water on Mr. Gray's shirt. A hole in the shirt. X stabbed Mr. Gray through the heart. Empty whisky glass on the floor next to Mr. Gray's right hand. Drop of whisky and water in glass. Blood and water on the carpet. Door locked from the inside. Window locked from the inside. K didn't find these things: Other fingerprints: only Mr. Gray's. There weren't any weapons. There wasn't a knife or gun. There aren't any secret doors or passage.

The locked room

(K's report :)

Mr. Gray's body was in front of the refrigerators. His feet were near the refrigerator. He was on the car-pet face down.

The whisky glass was empty. I smelled it. It was in Mr. Gray's right hand at the time of the murder. There was blood and water on Mr. Gray's shirt-over his heart. X stabbed Mr. Gray with a sharp weapon. There was blood and water on the carpet. X stabbed Mr. Gray with a sharp weapon, so there was blood on Mr. Gray's shirt and there was blood on the carpet. But why was there water on Mr. Gray's shirt and water on the car-pet?

Mr. Gray locked the door from the inside. There were fingerprints on the desk, on the refrigerator and on the whisky glass, but there were only Mr. Gray's fingerprints. There aren't any secret passages in the room. There wasn't a knife or a gun in the room. Mr. Gray's Dictaphone was on.

Michael Gray's habits

Mr Gray arrived home at 7:00 this evening. He arrived with his secretary, Angela Everett. Mr. Gray always arrives home at this time, but his secretary doesn't always come with him.

Colonel Stevens and Andrew Selkir were already at 'Longacres'. They arrived at

5:00 in the afternoon. They had a drink with Mrs. Gray. Mrs. Baker served drinks in the library.

At 7:00 Mr. Gray went to his room. He took a bath and changed for dinner. He always takes a bath and changes at this time. Then he went to the library and had drink with his wife, Colonel Stevens, Andrew Selkirk and Angela Everett. Mr. Gray always has a drink before dinner. Dinner was at 8:00. Mr Gray always has dinner at 8:00. They all had dinner in the dining room. They all sat around the table and talked.

Mrs. Baker answers some questions.

Mrs. Baker answers some questions:

K sat in Mr. Gray's chair in the study and spoke to Mrs. Baker. " So they all had dinner and talked, Mrs. Baker?" K asked. "Yes, ma'am," Mrs. Baker said. "Did they laugh, too, Mrs. Baker?" "Oh, yes, ma'am. They're all good friends." "Good friends, Mrs. Baker?" "Yes-well, er-Mr. Gray and Mrs. Gray, well-they…" "They argued, Mrs. Baker?" "yes, ma'am, but not at dinner. After dinner Mr. Gray and Mrs. Gray went to the library. Just the two of them. They argued. I heard them. I was in the kitchen. They shouted and shouted. We all heard them." "Then what?"

More questions

"Did Mr. Gray always go to his study at nine o'clock?" "Yes, ma'am. He worked in his study until 1:00 or 2:00 in the morning. Sometimes his secretary went to his study with him, " Mrs. Baker said. "Sometimes? Did she go there this evening?" "No, ma'am. I took Mr. Gray a cup of coffee at 9:30. I always take him a cup of coffee at 9:30. I knocked on the study door, but he didn't answer. I knocked again and again. I shouted, but he didn't answer, so I called Mrs. Gray, Colonel Stevens, and Mr. Selkirk." "And Miss Everett?" "No, ma'am. She was in the garden. Colonel Stevens and Mr. Selkirk broke down the door, and we found him- Mr. Gray- we found him on the floor-DEAD! OH!" Mrs. Baker cried. She was very sad. "Thank you, Mrs. Baker," K said quietly.

Task 3

Elizabeth Gray's story

Elizabeth Gray's story

Mrs. Baker left the study, and K wrote her report. Then there was a knock on the door. It was very quiet. "Come in, " K said quietly. The door opened. "You wanted to see me, " Mrs. Gray said. "Yes, Mrs. Gray. Come in and sit down please. A drink?" "No, thank you. " "How are you?" K asked quietly. "How can you ask? Mike's gone. He's dead. Dead! It isn't true, is it, Detective Kirby? It isn't true." "Sh!" K said. "Tell me about him." "Mike? He was a good husband. We got married twenty-five years ago. That's a long time, isn't it? He was just out of the army then. He loved me and I loved him. We didn't have any children, and Mike was always sorry about that. But he was

always a good husband to me." "Always?" "Yes, always!" Mrs. Gray shouted. "Well-there were…" "Yes?" K asked quietly. "Other women. All these secretaries!" Mrs. Gray cried. "Mike always liked young secretaries-and they like him. For his money! Look at this new one. This..this…What's her name? This Angela Everett. The little…!" Mrs. Gray's voice was quiet, but her face was red and her eyes were angry.

"Oh," she said, " I hated Mike's secretaries. They were always young, always pretty, and they took him away from me. But I really hate this secretary. This Angela Everett. She comes into my house every day. She comes with Mike. 'I'm sorry, Mrs. Gray, ' she says in her pretty little voice.' Mike loved me. I know it! I know it! But he liked other women. He was rich, so women like him. Yes. I loved Mike, but sometimes,

I hated him. I hated him! Maybe he's in this room now. Maybe he can hear me. I loved him and I hated him. He knew that well." "What happened this evening?" K asked. "I'll tell you," Mrs. Gray said.

After Dinner

Can I speak to you, Mike-in the library? Yes Liz.

What is it, Liz? It's about…this…secretary. Angela? Yes.

She's a wicked woman, Mike. I know it. She wants your money. That's not true, Liz.

It is! I know it. She's a good secretary, Liz. I can't work without a secretary.

I don't like her, Mike. She's wicked. Well I like her and she's my secretary. Please, Mike, I don't want to fight. I'm not fighting. You are

Please listen, Mike. I won't listen. It's always the same with you. You're jealous.

You're jealous. I'm not…and don't shout. I am not shouting. I'm going to my study. I have work to do. Please, Mike. Listen…I'm sorry…..

Called the police

"So Mr. Gray went to his study at nine o'clock. What did you do?" K asked. "I went to the living room. I wanted to speak to my brother, Andrew. We sat and talked. I told him about Mike and about that woman, Everett. Andrew knows all about it." "Mr. Gray was in the study. Did you hear him?" "No. At 9:30 Nancy shouted. Andrew and I ran to the study. The door was locked. Andrew and Colonel Stevens broke down the door. Then I saw Mik's body on the floor. He was dead! I called the police." "Where was Miss Everett?" K asked. "In the garden. She often went to the study after dinner." "But not tonight?" "No. Not tonight. She was in the garden. Why did Mike die? It wasn't suicide, so maybe she knows. Maybe she can tell you. A woman like that cannot bring good to this house. Can go now?" Mrs. Gray asked suddenly. "Of course," K said. "Thanks you, Mrs. Gray."

Task 4

Colonel Stevens' Story

The time was 10:45. There was a knock on the study door. "Can I come in?" a voice asked. It was a man's voice. "Yes," K said. The door opened and Colonel Stevens came in. "You want to see all of us tonight. Detective Kirby? "Yes," Ksaid. "A drink, Colonel Stevens?" "yes, please." "Whisky?" "Yes, please. I need one.!" "Ice?" "Ice? Er-er-no, thank you. I don't want any ice. Just water, please. Thank you." "He was you friend?" K asked. "Yes. A very good friend, too," the Colonel said. He put his head between his hands. "Dead! Michael Gray dead! I can't believe it." "It's sad," K said, "but it's true." "Tell me about him," K said. "We were in the army together. That was twenty-five years ago. Then Michael left the army, married Elizabeth and went into Selkirk Industries. That's Mrs. Gray's family firs. She was a Selkirk. I left the army five years ago. I'm no in the army now but people call me 'Colonel'. I needed work so I went to my old friend, Michael. He helped me." "Helped you? How?" K asked. "Oh-er-um. Money. You know." " I don't know," K said. "He gave me money." " Gave you?" "Lent me." How much did he lend you? "$100,000." "Mm. Andy what did you do with it?" " I put it into my business." What is your business, Colonel Stevens?" "Well, it isn't really a business…horses…you know." "You gambled the money," K said sharply. "Yes, I gambled and lost," the Colonel said. "Michael knew about this. He was very angry with me. He said, 'I lent you this money, and now you have to pay it back to me.' I said, 'I can't. I don't have any money!' He said, 'Then you have to sell your house!' I didn't want to sell my house. We argued about this." "He's dead now," K said. "Are you really sorry?" "Sorry? Of course I'm sorry. We argued about money, but we were friends. Good friends. Army friends are always good friends." "What did you do in the army, Colonel?" " I was with the engineers. Michael was with the engineers, too." "Are you an engineer?" "I was an engineer." "And now you gable with other people's money," K said sharply. " I gambled and lost." "You argued with Mr. Gray about money. Tell me about it."

Gambled and lost

Look, William. I've lent you $100,000. Where's my money? I don't have the money now. You've lost it! I want it now. You have to pay me back now! Please, Michael! You won't lose your money.

I want it now. You have to sell your house. I can't do that! I can't pay you back yet. But Michael. Please remember the old days. We're old friends. Remember?

I don't know about that. I want my money.

You gambled $100,000. It's true. I gambled and lost, but… My money.

Don't shout old man. Don't call me old man. You find that money fast!

A pretty little thing

"Tell me about tonight." "Tonight? After dinner I went to the living room. I went with Andrew. Michael and Elizabeth went to the library. They argued. We heard them from the living room. They often argued, Michael and Elizabeth. Michael-you know-he like women. And Angela, well, she's a pretty little thing." The Colonel smiled. "Like you, Detective Kirby. A pretty little thing." "Thank you, Colonel," K smiled. "What did you do after dinner?" "Well, Michael went to his study. Elizabeth came to the living room, and I went to the library. I sat in the library and read." "Alone?" "Yes, alone. The housekeeper, Mrs. Baker, brought me some coffee at 9:30. Then she took some coffee to Michael. His door was locked. She shouted. I ran to the study. You know the story." "Yes, but not all the story-yet!" K said sharply. " You can go now, Colonel, and please call Miss Everett for me."

Task 5
Angela Everett's story

"I don't like this room," Miss Everett said. "Mick died in here. Only two hours ago-Mick died in here. Why do you use this room?" " I have my reasons," K said. " Sit down. Miss Everett. A drink?" " Yes, please. A very large whisky and a lot of ice, please." K went to the refrigerator. She opened it, then she opened the freezer and took out the ice-tray. She put some ice in Miss Everett's drink and then put the ice-tray back in the freezer. K looked into the freezer, then she looked at Miss Everett. "Why are you looking at me?" Miss Everett asked suddenly. "Collonel Stevens calls you' a pretty little thing' Are you?" K asked sharply. "Are you?" Miss Everett asked. She spoke sharply too. "I'm asking the questions," K answered. "Here's your drink." "Thanks." "He loved you." "Of course he did. Didn't she tell you?" "She?" " That woman. His wife. She didn't love him. She fought with him. All the time. She fought with my Mick." "Mick?" "Yes, he was 'Mick' to me. 'Mick' to her. 'Michael' to other people. My Mick loved me. She always shouted at him, fought with him. So he always came to me. She gave him hate. I gave him love." " You really loved him?" "Of course. I loved him deeply. And she knew it. I hate her. I hate that woman," Miss Everett shouted. "She hated my Mick and I hate her. She murdered him. I know it. I know it." " Mr. Gray was fifty-five. And you are twenty-five." "What are you saying?" Miss Everett asked sharply. "Don't you know any nice men of fifty-five? Mick was nice. Really nice." "And rich," K said sharply. "He left a lot of money to you, in his will." "Really? How do you know that?" "I'm asking the questions, and you are answering them," K said. "You knew about the money." "Yes," Miss Everett answered. "How much did he leave you?" "I don't know." " You know very well. Tell me," K said sharply. "Mick changed his will two weeks ago. He left a lot of money to her, of course. She doesn't need money. She's rich. But he left $200,000 to me. He told me about it." "Mr. Gray is dead now, and that's a good thing

for you." "Good for me? What are you saying? I loved him. Don't you understand?" "Yes, but maybe you're rich now. Maybe you have $200,000." "Jealous?: Miss Everett asked K sharply. "Listen, policewoman, I love money. That's true. But I loved Mick. Do you hear? I loved Mick. Why did the police send a woman detective?" "Ask them," K said. "You're pretty," Miss Everett said. "My Mick liked pretty women. His wife was a pretty woman years ago, but she isn't now." " I must tell her that, " K said. "Yes. Tell her. Please tell her!" "You often went to the study with Mr. Gray after dinner." "Yes. We worked together. We usually went to the study at 9:00. I usually had a drink with Mick.

Then we worked. The housekeeper usually brought us a cup of coffee at 9:30. I worked till 11:00, then I went home." "But you didn't go to Mr. Gray's study tonight?" "No, I didn't. It's strange." "Strange?" "Yes, Mick didn't want me to go. He wanted to be alone." "Tell me about it."Changed the will"And where were you tonight-at the time of the murder?" "In the garden." "Where, in the garden?" "Outside Mick's study." "Why?" " I wanted to walk. It was a cold night, but it was clear. I needed air. Mick was in his study. I wanted to be with him, and I was alone. I didn't want to stay in the house." "You were afraid," K said. "Afraid? Why?" " Maybe Mr. Gray wanted to change his will again. You were afraid of that. You didn't want that, did you?" "That's not true. I only wanted to be with him. It wasn't the money." "You want to be a rich woman." "Quiet!" Miss Everett shouted. "I'm pretty and you hate me. You like her. Well, listen. I didn't do it. See? I didn't do it!" Miss Everett shouted. Then she ran out of the room.

In the car on the way home

Will we work tonight, Mick? Work? No, Angela. I want to work alone tonight. Mick…Yes? Will you work on your will? Maybe. My little Mick loves his little Angela. Of course. Little Mick won't change his will again? I don't want to talk about my will. My Mick loves his Angela and doesn't love that woman! Angela! I've told you before. Don't speak about Elizabeth like that! Mick! Careful! Angela! Sometimes I get very angry with you!

Task 6
Andrew Selkirk's story

"Can I come in?" a voice said. The voice was cool, aristocratic. Yes, and shut the door, please," K said. She looked up. "It's me. Andrew Selkirk. Miss Everett has left-I think." K looked at this cool, aristocratic figure in his fine suit. "Miss Everett has left-you think," said. " I heard her. We all heard her," Mr. Selkirk laughed. "Whisky, Mr. Selkirk? " K asked. "Whisky,Mr. Selkirk?" K asked. "Yes, please." "Ice?" "Er-no, thanks. Just water, please. Thank you." "What can you tell me about Mr. Gray?" "A lot. What do you want to know?" "A lot." "Well, I didn't like him. I can tell you that. He was my sister's husband. But I didn't like Michael at all. I never liked him. "Michael

married my sister twenty-five years ago. He wasn't a rich man then-just out of the army.

We-the family-took him into the firm. My father, James Selkirk, liked him. He worked hard. He became a Director of Selkirsk Industries. Selkirk Industries is the family firm. Michael was hard worker, but he married into money." " You never liked him. Why?" "A number of reasons. He often argued with Elizabeth, and I didn't like that at all. He liked women, and he spent a lot of money on them. But he spent money like water. I didn't like that. It's our money, the family's. He changed his will. My sister told me about it. He wanted to leave $200,000 to that sill girl, Angela Everett." "His secretary." "Yes-his secretary." "Why did you come to Longacres, Mr. Selkirk?" " I wanted to speak to Michael. He and I had a talk before dinner." "Tell me about it."

200,000

You're going to leave $200,000 to your secretary, Elizabeth says. It isn't true? Maybe it is. But why? She's good to me. It's my money and I can spend it. It isn't your money. It's the family's. I work hard. Yes, but $200,000. It's family money. Family money? It's my money. Without me Selkirk Industries will die.

That's not true. You can't spend money like that on women….

…Selkir Industries Could do without you. You should leave the firm! Leave the firm! Leave the firm! Ha! Ha! Well, you can't leave $200,000 to that woman. I'll stop you. Just try.

Cold face

"Well, he's dead now, so that's good for Selkirk Industries." "Yes, it's very good." "And you're glad?" "Yes. He's dead and I'm glad. The family firs is very important to me. Of course, I'm sorry for my sister. She really loved him. But it's good for the family." "Did Mr. Gray leave $200,000 to Miss Everett is a rich woman now." "Maybe she is." "you're very cool, Mr. Selkir." "Cool?" "Yes. He's dead and you're glad. Maybe he left $200,000 to his secretary. But you don't look angry. You really hated Mr. Gray, didn't you? Behind that cool face, you hated him?" "True, but I didn't murder him." "Mr. Gray died at 9:25. Where were you at time?" "Hasn't my sister told you? I was in the living room. She spoke to me about Everett. Then we heard Nancy-Mrs. Baker. We ran outside. We ran to the study door. Colonel Stevens and I broke down the door. We saw the body on the floor-there. Elizabeth called the police." "Did you touch the body?" "No. Micahel was dead. We all saw that, and we didn't touch the body. We just waited for the police." "And the police sent me." "Yes, the police sent you." "Thank you, Mr. Selkirk." "Can we all go to bed now?" "No, I'm sorry. It's late, but I have to speak to all of you. But first I have to speak to Mrs. Baker." "I'll send her to you." "Thank you, Mr. Selkirk."

Task 7

Nancy Baker's story

"Whisky, Mrs. Baker?"

"Oh, yes, please. A large one." "You like whisky, Mrs. Baker?" "Er…well…I…" "You often drink Mr. Gray's whisky…?" "I …well…I…" "Ice?" "No, no, thank you. Well, yes, please." K took the ice-tray, Mrs. Baker." "What about it, ma'am? I filled it this morning." "Well, Mr. Gray died here-in front of the refrigerator. He had a glass of whisky in his hand. He wanted some ice, so he went to the refrigerator. He didn't get any ice." "How do you know?" "You and Miss Everett had ice in your whisky. That's two pieces. Mr. Gray didn't have any. That's strange, isn't it?" "Yes, ma'am, it's very strange." "How long have you been with the family?" "Forty years." "That's a long time." "yes, ma'am. Mrs. Gray was a little girl then-eight years old. Andrew Selkirk was a bay. I worked for Mr. and Mrs. Selkirk. They're dead now." "You like the family?"

"Yes. I love them all. I love my Mrs. Gray." "And Mr. gray? Did you love him?" "Yes, ma'am. I loved him, too. They got married twenty-five years ago. I remember it well. I have worked for them since then. Mr. Gray was a good man. A kind man." "He and Mrs. Gray often argued." "Yes, ma'am. But he loved he deeply, and she loved him." "But he liked pretty girls." "He was a man." "And Miss Everett? What about her?" "Oh, I don't like her. I was always afraid of her." "Afraid?" "Yes, ma'am. She wasn't like the other girls. Mr. Gray listened to her. Maybe they'll run away and leave Mrs. Gray, I thought, and I didn't like that." "You were afraid of it." "Yes." "Why?" "Well…I clean this study every day, and…" "And you always read Mr. Gray's letters?" "I…er…yes, ma'am." "Tell me about it." "I'll try to remember."

A Letter

It was last week when I was cleaning the study. This desk! Oh! What's this? Mm. A letter. Her writing. I have to read it. Darling Mick-The little…! Suddenly the door opened and Mr. Gray came in. What are you doing, Nancy? Er…er..just cleaning the study, Sir. I put the letter in my pocket. I left the study and took it with me. I read it in my room, then I put it back on Mr. Gray's desk…I was afraid.

Loyal housekeeper

"Now they can't run away together. Are you glad, Mrs. Baker?" "No, ma'am." "No?" "No, because Mr. Gray is dead. I didn't want Mr Gray to run away with Miss Everett. But I didn't want him to die. I served him for twenty-five years." "You're very loyal to this family, Mrs. Baker." "Yes, ma'am. That the world, 'loyal'. I don't know why. You see, I don't have a family. This is my family. Now I want to be with Mrs. Gray. Always. I want to help her. Miss Everett is a wicked woman. Mr Gray is dead. She has taken Mr. Gray from us. She's really wicked, ma'am." "Tell me about tonight, Mrs. Baker." "Well, dinner was at 8:00. I served dinner, then I made some coffee for Colonel

Stevens and some coffee for Mr. Gray. I always take-er-took-coffee to Mr. Gray after dinner. Mrs. Gray and Mr. Selkirk were in the living room. They didn't want any coffee. I took the coffee to Colonel Stevens in the library. Then I went to the study with Mr.

Gray's coffee. I knocked at the door, and he didn't answer. I tried to opened the door, but it was locked-you know the story." "Yes. You shouted, and three of the others came. Miss Everettt didn't come." "No, ma'am. She was in the garden-she says." "She was in the garden, Mrs. Baker. Then Colonel Stevens and Mr. Selkirk broke down the door. And you saw Mr. Gray. He was there, just behind you, on the floor, dead!" "Mrs. Baker looked behind her and jumped. "Yes, ma'am. Just there!" She put her head between her hands and cried. "You can go now, Mrs. Baker. Thank you."

Task 8
How?

"Just a minute, Detective Kirby," Colonel Stevens said suddenly. "Look! I'm not the murderer. You don't' think that, do you?" "Why are you here?" K asked. "I wanted to see this mechanism. I'm an engineer, remember? I tried to sleep, but I couldn't. Look at this mechanism! You see? It was behind the refrigerator. The box went into the wall, and this piece went into the back of the freezer. This string went on the ice-tray. Michael pulled the ice-tray, and this triggered the mechanism. It was in line with his heart. Look inside the box. See? It's a powerful bow. Very small, of course. And it shoots icicles! Michael opened the freezer, pulled the tray and WHAM! –an icicle through the heart! Then it turned to water and disappeared. The murder weapon just disappeared! Very clever!

"Michael made this bow," Colonel Stevens said, "It's small but powerful. The murderer put an icicle in the freezer just before nine o'clock. Michael pulled the ice-tray. It was stuck in the freezer. Stuck with ice to the bottom of the freezer. So he pulled it hard. The icicle went into the string on the bow. The string went back and WHAM! The icicle went like an arrow. Very clever!" "Mr. Gray made this bow?" K asked. "Yes. He often made things like this in the army. It was his hobby." Suddenly Colonel Stevens stopped. He spoke slowly. "Michael made this bow, and it killed him. Who put it behind the refrigerator? Not me. "You didn't. I know." K said. "Then who..?" "I'll answer that questions now!" K whispered. "Sh!" She walked to the door very quietly. Then she suddenly opened the door. "Aaaaah!" There's a person outside the door. Who is it? Make your choice.

Who?

"Nancy!" K cried sharply. "Oh!" Mrs. Baker cried. "Nancy!" K said sharply. "Nancy! What are you doing?" Mrs Baker didn't answer. "You're listening, aren't you, Nancy? "Yes, ma'am." Mrs. Baker said. K pulled Nancy into the room. "Now answer

me. Why are you listening?" "I want to know…I want to know…about the murder."
"Yes. You want to know," K said sharply. "This bow was in the wall behind the
refrigerator. You wanted to take it out. And why did you want to take it out?" Mrs Baker
didn't answer. "You can't answer? Then Ill tell you. You wanted to take it out because
you put it there. You put it there before nine o'clock last night." Mrs. Baker still didn't
answer. "Didn't you?" K shouted. "Yes, ma'am." Mrs. Baker whispered. The lights
went on all over the house. First Angela Everett came downstairs, then Andrew Selkir,
then Mrs. Gray. They all went into the study. "Oh, I'm so sleepy," Miss Everett said.

"What's happenening? What's all this noise?" Andrew Selkirk looked at the bow
and then at Mrs. Baker. But he didn't speak. Mrs. Gray looked at the bow and then at
Mrs. Baker. "That's Michael's," she said. "He made it. He often made things like that. It
was his hobby." She went to Mrs. Baker and held her arms. "Now look at me, Nancy,'
she said quietly. "look into my eyes." Mrs Baker looked up slowly. "Look into my eyes,"
Mrs. Gray said sharply. Mrs. Baker looked into Mrs. Gray's eyes. "Now tell me. You
didn't do it. Tell me that, please. Nancy. You didn't kill my husband." "But I did,
ma'am," Mrs. Baker said. "I killed him, but…" "Nancy!" Mrs. Gray screamed. "Oh,
Nancy! How could you, Nancy? How could you?" Mrs. Gray asked. "You've served
my family for forty years. Nancy. You came to this family forty years ago. I was a child
of eight. Andrew was a baby. You love us. We love you. You've served Michael for
twenty-five years. You loved him, too. Nancy, you couldn't do this wicked thing. You
couldn't! You couldn't! Why, Nancy, why?" "Oh, Mrs. Gray," Nancy said with tears in
her eyes. "Mr. Gray made this powerful bow. I took it and made a plan. I came into this
study last night at 8:50. You didn't hear me. I put an icicle in the freezer. I made the
icicle in the big refrigerator in the kitchen. I put the mechanism in the wall behind the
freezer a week ago. I prepared the mechanism a month ago. Last night I put the icicle
into place. Last night was the night. I worked carefully and didn't leave my
finger-points. I've prepared a long time for last night." "Yes, but why did you do it?"
Mrs. Gray said.

Why?

"I didn't want to kill Mr. Gray. He wasn't my victim. I loved him and I love you.
He wasn't always kind to you, and you often argued. He went with other women. I
wanted to kill that woman there! That wicked woman, Everett. That was my motive.
She usually came to the study with Mr. Gray. I knew their habits. She usually poured
some whisky in a glass for Mr. Gray. She usually put some ice in the whisky. I prepared
this mechanism very carefully for her, but last night she didn't come. She was in the
garden. I didn't know that at the time. I was in the kitchen. At 9:30 I brought the coffee,
and Mr. Gray didn't open the door. Then I knew. He was dead! Dead! And that woman,
that wicked woman wasn't! Oh, Mrs. Gray, what could I do? What could I do?" Tears

ran down Mrs. Baker's face. A policeman went to her and whispered softly, "Come to the station with us now, Mrs. Baker." She took Mrs. Baker out of the moon. "What could I do? What could I do? Mrs. Baker said again and again.

Appendix C

班級：　　　座號：

姓名：

Listening 1

1. Where does river water go?
   A. Seas and lakes
   B. Seas and oceans
   C. Lakes and oceans
   D. Seas, lakes and oceans
2. Where does the salt in the ocean go?
   A. It evaporates.
   B. It moves into the air.
   C. It moves into the clouds.
   D. It stays in the ocean.
3. How much percentage of salt in the ocean water?
   A. 0.5%
   B. 3%
   C. 3.5%
   D. 5.3%
4. What is the best title of this passage?
   A. Why is the sea salty?
   B. Why is the Dead Sea salty?
   C. Why do rivers run into the ocean?
   D. Why is the Atlantic Ocean saltier than the Pacific Ocean?

Listening 2

1. Why doesn't the camel store fat all over the body?
   A. Camels don't want to be warm during the day.
   B. Camels don't want to be tired when walking through the desert.
   C. Camels don't know how to store fat all over the body.
   D. Camels don't like to store fat in its hump.
2. Why does a camel need long eyelashes?
   A. To keep out the insects
   B. To protect from sunshine.
   C. To prevent sand from flying
   D. To avoid rain drops
3. How many words does Arabic should have to describe a camel?
   A. 50
   B. 100
   C. 150
   D. 250
4. What is the recording mainly about?
   A. There are two kinds of camels.
   B. The camel has a good body for life in the desert.
   C. The camel stores food in its hump.
   D. The camel has long eyelashes.

Listening 3

1. Where does the date palm come from?
   A. Southern Europe
   B. Middle East.
   C. Africa.
   D. Asia.
2. How do we know people have thought date palm trees are beautiful?
   A. Some of houses are built by date palm trees.
   B. Some of palm trees grow in the Middle East.
   C. They made pictures of palm trees and flower, and display pictures in art museum.
   D. There are more than many kinds of palm trees in the warm parts of the world.
3. What is the recording mainly about?
   A. There are many kinds of Palm trees in the world.
   B. People made pictures of the date palm
   C. The date palm can be used to feed animals.
   D. The date palm is beautiful, and people use all of it.

Listening 4

1. How much leisure time does Amal have every week?
   A. 45 hours
   B. 10 hours
   C. 23 hours
   D. 20 hours
2. Why do people watch more TV today than before?
   A. There are many more TV channels.
   B. This is the only leisure activity.
   C. Watching TV make them relax.
   D. They feel bored.
3. Why does surfing internet become another leisure activity?
   A. More and more people have two computers in their family.
   B. People are spending more time doing things on computers.
   C. People think surfing internet is the most interesting thing to do.
   D. Surfing internet is less expensive activity than others.
4. Why do people believe that they have less free time today?
   A. They have to work for long hours.
   B. They read papers while they are watching TV.
   C. They don't make good use of their free time.
   D. They mix their time and play time.
5. What is the recording mainly about?
   A. Leisure time is important.
   B. People spend a lot of leisure time watching TV.
   C. The way people use their leisure time is changing.
   D. Instead of watching TV, many employers surf on the internet

Listening 5

1. Where was the food store?
   A. It was at the top of the mountain.
   B. It was at the top of a hill.
   C. It was near the mountain
   D. It was near a hill.
2. According to the story, when dragon found that he couldn't fit all of the food into his car, what did he do?
   A. He packed away the pork rinds.
   B. He ate some of food he bought.
   C. He swallowed some of doughnuts.
   D. He crunched up some of cheese curls.
3. Why did dragon push his car home instead of driving home?
   A. The car was too small for him to fit in his car.
   B. He bought too much food to fit in his car.
   C. He became too big to fit in his car
   D. He became too heavy for his car.
4. Why was the cupboard still bare after Dragon went shopping?
   A. The dragon ate all of the food t in front of his house.
   B. The dragon ate all of the food while he was driving his car home.
   C. The dragon sat in front of his house and ate all of the food.
   D. The dragon sat in the parking lot and ate all of the food.

Listening 6

1. Why didn't Toad want something else as his birthday present?
   A. Toad was afraid that Frog was unhappy.
   B. Toad didn't want any present.
   C. The present was given by Frog.
   D. The hat exactly fit Toad's head.
2. Which of the following is NOT a reason why Toad said, "I can't wear your beautiful present."?
   A. He felt very hot.
   B. He bumped into a tree.
   C. He tripped over a rock.
   D. He fell in a hole.
3. What did Frog tell Toad to do when they realize the hat was too big for Toad?
   A. Toad should buy a new hat.
   B. Toad should sell the hat.
   C. Toad should have some big thoughts.
   D. Toad should make the hat smaller.
4. Why did the hat become just right for Toad?
   A. Toad had some big thoughts.
   B. Toad put the hat in a warm place.
   C. Frog gave him a new hat.
   D. Frog made the hat shrink.

5. How do we know that Frog and Toad are good friends?
   A. Frog and Toad went for a walk in the forest.
   B. Frog wanted Toad to have a perfect present.
   C. Frog and Toad sang songs together all day.
   D. Frog taught Toad how to shrink the hat.

Listening 7

1. What did Nathan's father like to do when he was six?
   A. He liked to count the butterflies.
   B. He liked to roll on the grass.
   C. He liked to make a shining lamp.
   D. He liked to catch fireflies.
2. Why does grandpa say "Not yet"?
   A. He isn't ready to catch fireflies.
   B. Grandma hasn't given him the firefly jar.
   C. The time isn't right to catch fireflies.
   D. Not all fireflies appeared in front of him.
3. Why does Nathan say "It's getting dark Where are the fireflies, Nana?"
   A. He doesn't like fireflies at all.
   B. He can't wait to see fireflies.
   C. He thinks that it's time to go home.
   D. He is afraid that insects may come out.
4. How should Nathan keep the firefly till he drops them in the jar?
   A. Nathan should cup his hands tightly.
   B. Nathan should hold firefly with one hand.
   C. Nathan should use the net to keep fireflies.
   D. Nathan should touch the firefly gently.
5. What do you think Nathan will tell his parents about his visit?
   A. How happily he caught fireflies with grandparents
   B. How long he lived in grandparents house
   C. How many fireflies he was able to catch
   D. How well he could catch fireflies
6. Why did Nathan's grandparents save the firefly jar?
   A. They wanted to give it to their grandson as a birthday present.
   B. They wanted to keep the memory of their parents.
   C. They wanted to use it to catch fireflies again.
   D. They wanted to sell it for a good price.
7. What do Nathan tell his grandparents to do, which his father also did?
   A. Nathan told his grandparents to enjoy catching fireflies.
   B. Nathan told his grandparents to lay the firefly jar on the pillow.
   C. Nathan told his grandparents to let fireflies stay in the jar in the night.
   D. Nathan told his grandparents to let fireflies out when he was asleep.

此聽力測驗中，有 4 篇敘事性文章和 3 篇故事；每篇皆有 3~7 個題目。在每一篇文章或故事播放前，將有二十秒的時間去閱讀問題和答案選項，當聽到這個聲音 W，請準備開始作答。每篇文章或故事都只會播放一次，你必須邊聽邊寫下答案。請記住：文章或故事都只會播放一次。現在請開始閱讀第一部分的問題和答案選項，並請留意播放的提示音 W。

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Listening 4

1. Where does river water go?
    A. Seas and lakes
    B. Seas and oceans
    C. Lakes and oceans
    D. Seas, lakes and oceans
2. Where does the salt in the ocean go?
    A. It evaporates.
    B. It moves into the air.
    C. It moves into the clouds.
    D. It stays in the ocean.
3. How much percentage of salt in the ocean water?
    A. 0.5%
    B. 3%
    C. 3.5%
    D. 5.3%
4. What is the best title of this passage?
    A. Why is the sea salty?
    B. Why is the Dead Sea salty?
    C. Why do rivers run into the ocean?
    D. Why is the Atlantic Ocean saltier than the Pacific Ocean?

Listening 5

1. Why doesn't the camel store fat all over the body?
    A. Camels don't want to be warm during the day.
    B. Camels don't want to be tired when walking through the desert.
    C. Camels don't know how to store fat all over the body.
    D. Camels don't like to store fat in its hump.
2. Why does a camel need long eyelashes?
    A. To keep out the insects
    B. To protect from sunshine.
    C. To prevent sand from flying
    D. To avoid rain drops
3. How many words does Arabic should have to describe a camel?
    A. 50
    B. 100
    C. 150
    D. 250
4. What is the recording mainly about?
    A. There are two kinds of camels.
    B. The camel has a good body for life in the desert.
    C. The camel stores food in its hump.
    D. The camel has long eyelashes.

Listening 6

1. Where does the date palm come from?
    A. Southern Europe
    B. Middle East.
    C. Africa.
    D. Asia.
2. How do we know people have thought date palm trees are beautiful?
    A. Some of houses are built by date palm trees.
    B. Some of palm trees grow in the Middle East.
    C. They made pictures of palm trees and flower, and display pictures in art museum.
    D. There are more than many kinds of palm trees in the warm parts of the world.
3. What is the recording mainly about?
    A. There are many kinds of Palm trees in the world.
    B. People made pictures of the date palm
    C. The date palm can be used to feed animals.
    D. The date palm is beautiful, and people use all of it.

Listening 7

1. How much leisure time does Amal have every week?
    A. 45 hours
    B. 10 hours
    C. 23 hours
    D. 20 hours
2. Why do people watch more TV today than before?
    A. There are many more TV channels.
    B. This is the only leisure activity.
    C. Watching TV make them relax.
    D. They feel bored.
3. Why does surfing internet become another leisure activity?
    A. More and more people have two computers in their family.
    B. People are spending more time doing things on computers.
    C. People think surfing internet is the most interesting thing to do.
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    A. Leisure time is important.
    B. People spend a lot of leisure time watching TV.
    C. The way people use their leisure time is changing.
    D. Instead of watching TV, many employers surf on the internet

Appendix D

Transcript of Nonfiction Listening
The Camel

The camel can go without water for a long time. Some people think it stores water in its hump. This is not true. It stores food in its hump. The camel's body changes the food into fat. Then the fat is stored in the hump. A camel cannot store the fat all over its body. Fat all over an animal's body keeps the animal warm. Camels live in the desert. They do not want to be warm during the day.[1]

The desert is very hot. The camel gets hotter and hotter during the day. It stores this heat in its body because the nights are cool.

The Arabian camel has one hump. The Bactrian camel of Central Asia has two humps. It also has long, thick hair, because the winters are cold in Central Asia.

There is a lot of sand in the desert the camel has long eyelashes. The eyelashes keep the sand out of the camel's eyes.[2]

Arabic has about 150 words to describe a camel.[3] Many people who speak Arabic need all these words because the camel is very important to them.

Listening Questions

1. Why doesn't the camel store fat all over the body?
   A. **Camels don't want to be warm during the day.**
   B. Camels don't want to be tired when walking through the desert.
   C. Camels don't know how to store fat all over the body.
   D. Camels don't like to store fat in its hump.

2. Why does a camel need long eyelashes?
   A. To keep out the insects
   B. To protect from sunshine.
   C. **To prevent sand from flying**
   D. To avoid rain drops

3. How many words does Arabic should have to describe a camel?
   A. 50
   B. 100
   C. **150**
   D. 250

4. What is the recording mainly about?
   A. There are two kinds of camels.
   B. **The camel has a good body for life in the desert.**
   C. The camel stores food in its hump.
   D. The camel has long eyelashes.

Why Is the Sea Salty?

There is a lot of salt on the Earth, and it mixes very well with water. There is some salt in all water. Water on the land runs into lakes and rivers. The water from most lakes goes into rivers. **These rivers run into the seas and oceans.[1]** They carry a little salt with them. Some of the ocean water moves into the air and clouds. It evaporates. **Salt cannot evaporate. It stays in the ocean.[2]**

The water in the oceans has more salt than the water in rivers. **Ocean water is about 3.5% (three and a half percent) salt.[3]** Some seas have more salt than others.

Some lakes do not have a river to carry the water and salt away. Some of the water evaporates, but the salt cannot. These lakes are very salty. There are two famous lakes like this. They are the Dead Sea in the Middle East and the Great Salt Lake in the state of Utah in the United States. They are much saltier than the Atlantic Ocean and the Pacific Ocean.

Listening Questions

1. Where does river water go?
   A. Seas and lakes
   B. Seas and oceans
   C. Lakes and oceans
   D. Seas, lakes and oceans

2. Where does the salt in the ocean go?
   A. It evaporates.
   B. It moves into the air.
   C. It moves into the clouds.
   D. It stays in the ocean.

3. How much percentage of salt in the ocean water?
   A. 0.5%
   B. 3%
   C. 3.5%
   D. 5.3%

4. What is the best title of this passage?
   A. Why is the sea salty?
   B. Why is the Dead Sea salty?
   C. Why do rivers run into the ocean?
   D. Why is the Atlantic Ocean saltier than the Pacific Ocean?

The Date Palm

The date palm is a wonderful tree. People eat dates. **They feed them to their animals. They use the leaves and the wood to build houses. They use the wood to build boats. They make baskets from the leaves.[1]** They burn the other parts of the tree to cook their food.

The date palm came from the Middle East.[2] Seven thousand (7,000) years ago, people in Syria and Egypt ate dates. They made pictures of date palms on their stone buildings. Today date palms grow in the Middle East, parts of Asia and Africa, southern Europe, and other warm parts of the world.

There are more than 2,700 kinds of palm trees.[3] Hundreds of years ago, **people in southern Europe and some Arab countries made pictures of palm trees and palm flowers on some of their buildings. Today we can see these pictures in art museums.[4]** People think that the palm tree is beautiful. People thought the same thing a long time ago.

Listening Questions

1. Where does the date palm come from?
   A. Southern Europe
   B. Middle East.
   C. Africa.
   D. Asia.
2. How do we know people have thought date palm trees are beautiful?
   A. Some of houses are built by date palm trees.
   B. Some of palm trees grow in the Middle East.
   C. They made pictures of palm trees and flower, and display pictures in art museum.

   D. There are more than many kinds of palm trees in the warm parts of the world.

3. What is the recording mainly about?
   A. There are many kinds of Palm trees in the world.
   B. People made pictures of the date palm
   C. The date palm can be used to feed animals.
   D. The date palm is beautiful, and people use all of it.

Time off

Amal works 45 hours a week. It takes him an hour to travel to work every day. That means he spends 10 hours commuting each week. At home, Amal spends about 23 hours a week doing work around the house. Of course, he needs to sleep (56 hours a week) and prepare and eat meals (14 hours a week). So **Amal has 20 hours of leisure.[1]** That is a typical amount of leisure time for someone in the United States.

What do people do in their leisure time? Obviously, watching television is a popular free-time activity in many countries. Studies show that people are watching more TV today than they did twenty years ago. **That is probably because there are many more TV channels today.[2]** People can choose programs from hundreds of TV channels.

Computers are also changing the way people use their leisure time. T**oday people are spending more time doing things on their computers.[3]** Surfing the Internet is becoming another popular free-time activity. In fact, some employers are finding that workers are skipping lunch to surf the Internet.

More and more, people are mixing their work time and play time.[4] They talk on the telephone while they are commuting to work. They read work papers while they are eating. They listen to music while they are studying. Maybe this is why people believe that they have less free time today.

Listening Questions

1. How much leisure time does Amal have every week?
   - A. 45 hours
   - B. 10 hours
   - C. 23 hours
   - **D. 20 hours**
2. Why do people watch more TV today than before?
   - **A. There are many more TV channels.**
   - B. This is the only leisure activity.
   - C. Watching TV make them relax.
   - D. They feel bored.
3. Why does surfing internet become another leisure activity?
   - A. More and more people have two computers in their family.
   - **B. People are spending more time doing things on computers.**
   - C. People think surfing internet is the most interesting thing to do.
   - D. Surfing internet is less expensive activity than others.
4. Why do people believe that they have less free time today?
   - A. They have to work for long hours.
   - B. They read papers while they are watching TV.
   - C. They don't make good use of their free time.
   - **D. They mix their time and play time.**
5. What is the recording mainly about?
   - A. Leisure time is important.
   - B. People spend a lot of leisure time watching TV.
   - **C. The way people use their leisure time is changing.**
   - D. Instead of watching TV, many employers surf on the internet.

Transcript of Fiction Listening
Fireflies for Nathan (6:05) Track6 (1.5)

Nathan asks, "When Daddy lived here, was he little like me?" Nathan smiles. "He was. We came here when he was almost six." "I'm six already," Nathan says. "You are," and Nana kisses Nathan on the cheek. "What was Daddy's favorite thing to do when he was six?" Nathan asks. **Nana thinks and thinks. "Fireflies, "she says.[1]** "When night came on, the three of us—your poppy ,too—would creep across the lawn just when the fireflies began to star the grass. Your daddy caught a few—three, four, or five. Enough to make a shining lamp. I know exactly where the jar has been."Nathan jumps up. "Please, Nana, let's go in and get the jar. It's almost night." Nathan and Nana and Poppy are sitting in the grass.

The sky is streaked with red. They're waiting for the night to come. Their feet are bare. A ladybug begins a journey over Nathan's toes. A goldfinch lights atop a spread of Queen Anne's lace. A monarch butterfly wings in and out. Deep in the pond the bullfrogs croak Good Night, Good Night. The minutes pass. Nathan shakes his leg. The ladybug falls off his foot. He tugs at Poppy's sleeve. **"Not yet,"[2]** Poppy says. More minutes pass. Nathan pulls at Nan's arm. **"It's getting dark.[3]** Where are the fireflies, Nana?" "They'll be here soon.." Nana and Poppy nod their heads. Andy very soon one, two, then three and four, the firefly glows appear. The blinking yellow lights are everywhere above the grass.

Nathan and Nana and Poppy creep across the lawn. "Slowly, slowly," Poppy whispers. "Let Nana hold the jar." Nathan cups his hands around a glow. "I've got one, Poppy! Nana, I want to see it blinking on and off." "Careful," Nana warns. But it's too late. The firefly is gone. Nana whispers, "Just like your daddy." **"You have to keep your hands cupped tightly till you drop the firefly in the jar."[4]** Nathan promises, "I will," and soon the jar becomes a beacon in the night.

The firefly jar is sitting by the bed. Nana tucks the sheet up under Nathan's chin. Poppy kisses Nathan's cheek. "Do you like catching fireflies with me?" Nathan asks. "We do." "Just as much as with my daddy?" "Just as much." **"You can let them out when I'm asleep." Nana and Poppy smile. "That's what your daddy always said."[7]** **"I'm going to tell Mommy and Daddy all about catching fireflies with you."[5]** Nathan yawns and lays the firefly jar beside him on the pillow. He presses his cheek against the glass. "Nana, **I'm glad you saved the jar."[6]** And so are we," Nana and Poppy tiptoe from the room." And so are we."

Listening Questions
1. What did Nathan's father like to do when he was six?
   A. He liked to count the butterflies.
   B. He liked to roll on the grass.
   C. He liked to make a shining lamp.
   D. He liked to catch fireflies.

2. Why does grandpa say "Not yet"?
   A. He isn't ready to catch fireflies.
   B. Grandma hasn't given him the firefly jar.
   C. The time isn't right to catch fireflies.
   D. Not all fireflies appeared in front of him.

3. Why does Nathan say "It's getting dark Where are the fireflies, Nana?"
   A. He doesn't like fireflies at all.
   B. He can't wait to see fireflies.
   C. He thinks that it's time to go home.
   D. He is afraid that insects may come out.

4. How should Nathan keep the firefly till he drops them in the jar?
   A. Nathan should cup his hands tightly.
   B. Nathan should hold firefly with one hand.
   C. Nathan should use the net to keep fireflies.
   D. Nathan should touch the firefly gently.

5. What do you think Nathan will tell his parents about his visit?
   A. How happily he caught fireflies with grandparents
   B. How long he lived in grandparents house
   C. How many fireflies he was able to catch
   D. How well he could catch fireflies

6. Why did Nathan's grandparents save the firefly jar?
   A. They wanted to give it to their grandson as a birthday present.
   B. They wanted to keep the memory of their parents.
   C. They wanted to use it to catch fireflies again.
   D. They wanted to sell it for a good price.

7. What do Nathan tell his grandparents to do, which his father also did?
   A. Nathan told his grandparents to enjoy catching fireflies.
   B. Nathan told his grandparents to lay the firefly jar on the pillow.
   C. Nathan told his grandparents to let fireflies stay in the jar in the night.
   D. Nathan told his grandparents to let fireflies out when he was asleep.

Days with frog and toad (The Hat) (4:25) Track 4 (1.5)

On Toad's birthday, **frog gave him a hat.[5]** Toad was delighted. "Happy Birthday," said Frog. Toad put on the hat. It fell down over his eyes. "I am sorry," said Frog. "That hat is much too big for you. I will give you something else." "No," said Toad. **"This hat is your present to me. I like it. I will wear it the way it is."[1]** Frog and Toad went for a walk. Toad tripped over a rock. He bumped into a tree. He fell in a hole.

Toad said, **"I can't see anything. I will not be able to wear your beautiful present.[2]** This is a sad birthday for me." Frog and Toad were sad for a while. **Then Frog said, "Toad, here is what you must do. Tonight when you go to bed you must think some very big thoughts.[3]** Those big thoughts will make your head grow larger. In the morning, your new hat may fit." "What a good idea," said Toad. That night when Toad went to be he thought the biggest thoughts that he could think. Toad thought about giant sunflowers. He thought about tall oak trees. He thought about high mountains covered with snow.

Then Toad fell asleep. Frog came into Toad's house. **He came in quietly. Frog found the hat and took it to his house. Frog poured some water on the hat. He put the hat in a warm place to dry. It began to shrink.[4]** That hat grew smaller and smaller. Frog went back to Toad's house. Toad was still fast asleep. Frog put the hat back on the hook where he found it. When Toad woke up in the morning, he put the hat on his head. It was just the right size. Toad ran to Frog's house. "Frog, Frog!" he cried. "All those big thoughts have made my head much larger. Now I can wear your present!"

Frog and Toad went for a walk. Toad did not trip over a rock. He did not bump into a tree. He did not fall in a hole. It turned out to be a very pleasant day after Toad's birthday.

Listening Questions

1. Why didn't Toad want something else as his birthday present?
    A. Toad was afraid that Frog was unhappy.
    B. Toad didn't want any present.
    C. The present was given by Frog.
    D. The hat exactly fit Toad's head.

2. Which of the following is NOT a reason why Toad said, "I can't wear your beautiful present."?
    A. He felt very hot.
    B. He bumped into a tree.
    C. He tripped over a rock.
    D. He fell in a hole.

3. What did Frog tell Toad to do when they realize the hat was too big for Toad?
    A. Toad should buy a new hat.
    B. Toad should sell the hat.
    C. Toad should have some big thoughts.
    D. Toad should make the hat smaller.

4. Why did the hat become just right for Toad?
    A. Toad had some big thoughts.
    B. Toad put the hat in a warm place.
    C. Frog gave him a new hat.
    D. Frog made the hat shrink.

5. How do we know that Frog and Toad are good friends?
    A. Frog and Toad went for a walk in the forest.
    B. Frog wanted Toad to have a perfect present.
    C. Frog and Toad sang songs together all day.
    D. Frog taught Toad how to shrink the hat.

Dragon Gets by (3:28) Track 2 (2.1)

Dragon looked in his cupboard, but there was no food at all. "The cupboard is bare, "said Dragon. "Time to go shopping." Dragon got into his car and drove. **The food store was at the top of a hill.[1]** It was a very steep drive. Dragon loved to go shopping. He was a very wise shopper.

He bought food only from the five basic food groups: He bought cheese curls from the dairy group. He bought doughnuts from the bread group. He bought catsup (Ketchup) from the fruits and vegetables group. He bought pork rinds from the meat group. And he bought fudge pops from the chocolate group. Dragon had a balanced diet.

He had so much food that he could not fit it all into his car. "I know what I will do," said Dragon. **"I will eat some of the food now, and then the rest will fit in the car."[2]** Dragon sat in the parking lot and started to eat. He crunched up the cheese curls. He downed the doughnuts. He packed away the pork rinds. **Dragon ate and ate and ate until all the food was gone.[4]** "Burp!"

Now dragon could not fit into his car. "Oh, what am I going to do?" cried Dragon. He thought and thought, and scratched his big head. "I know what I will do," said Dragon. **"I will push my car home."[3]** So dragon pushed his car down the hill. The car began to roll faster and faster….and faster….and faster….

Finally, Dragon's car came to a stop right in front of his house. All the excitement had made Dragon very hungry. He went into his kitchen and looked in the cupboard. **There was no food at all. "The cupboard is bare "said Dragon.[4]** "Time to go shopping."

Listening Questions

1. Where was the food store?
   A. It was at the top of the mountain.
   B. It was at the top of a hill.
   C. It was near the mountain
   D. It was near a hill.

2. According to the story, when dragon found that he couldn't fit all of the food into his car, what did he do?
   A. He packed away the pork rinds.
   B. He ate some of food he bought.
   C. He swallowed some of doughnuts.
   D. He crunched up some of cheese curls.

3. Why did dragon push his car home instead of driving home?
   A. The car was too small for him to fit in his car.
   B. He bought too much food to fit in his car.
   C. He became too big to fit in his car
   D. He became too heavy for his car.

4. Why was the cupboard still bare after Dragon went shopping?
   A. The dragon ate all of the food t in front of his house.
   B. The dragon ate all of the food while he was driving his car home.
   C. The dragon sat in front of his house and ate all of the food.
   D. The dragon sat in the parking lot and ate all of the food.

Appendix E

Score distribution of the pretest and posttest

Scores	Pretest	Posttest
1	0	0
2	0	0
3	0	0
4	1	0
5	0	1
6	0	1
7	0	1
8	3	1
9	1	1
10	0	3
11	4	2
12	6	5
13	7	6
14	5	5
15	7	5
16	9	9
17	8	8
18	7	7
19	8	10
20	10	8
21	16	6
22	7	11
23	7	9
24	9	5
25	10	9
26	4	5
27	5	8
28	2	7
29	3	3
30	1	3
31	0	3
32	2	0
N	**142**	**142**

Score distribution of the pretest and posttest in the experimental group

Scores	Pretest	Posttest
1	0	0
2	0	0
3	0	0
4	0	0
5	0	0
6	0	0
7	0	0
8	1	0
9	0	1
10	0	0
11	0	0
12	3	2
13	3	2
14	2	1
15	2	3
16	3	4
17	4	2
18	4	3
19	3	3
20	3	1
21	10	2
22	3	7
23	4	7
24	8	5
25	7	6
26	3	3
27	2	7
28	2	5
29	0	1
30	0	2
31	0	1
32	1	0
N	**68**	**68**

Score distribution of the pretest and posttest in the control group

Scores	Pretest	Posttest
1	0	0
2	0	0
3	0	0
4	1	0
5	0	1
6	0	1
7	0	1
8	2	1
9	1	1
10	0	2
11	4	2
12	3	3
13	4	4
14	3	4
15	5	2
16	6	5
17	4	6
18	3	4
19	5	7
20	7	7
21	6	4
22	4	4
23	3	2
24	1	0
25	3	3
26	1	2
27	3	1
28	0	2
29	3	2
30	1	1
31	0	2
32	1	0
N	**74**	**74**

Score distribution of the pretest and posttest on 16-fiction items in the experimental group

Scores	Pretest	Posttest
1	0	0
2	0	0
3	0	0
4	3	0
5	4	3
6	0	1
7	3	3
8	5	9
9	9	5
10	7	5
11	11	11
12	13	7
13	6	14
14	5	7
15	1	3
16	1	0
N	**68**	**68**

Score distribution of the pretest and posttest on 16-nonfiction items in the experimental group

Scores	Pretest	Posttest
1	0	0
2	0	0
3	1	0
4	0	2
5	2	0
6	4	3
7	5	5
8	4	2
9	9	7
10	9	6
11	9	8
12	8	10
13	11	7
14	4	10
15	0	3
16	2	5
N	**68**	**68**

Score distribution of the pretest and posttest on 16-fiction items in the control group

Scores	Pretest	Posttest
1	1	0
2	0	2
3	4	1
4	0	4
5	3	1
6	3	6
7	7	7
8	10	9
9	10	12
10	7	9
11	11	5
12	7	4
13	2	4
14	2	4
15	5	3
16	2	3
N	**74**	**74**

Score distribution of the pretest and posttest on 16-nonfiction items in the control group

Scores	Pretest	Posttest
1	0	1
2	0	1
3	1	3
4	2	0
5	4	6
6	11	8
7	5	5
8	9	9
9	12	7
10	5	6
11	11	9
12	5	6
13	3	6
14	4	5
15	1	2
16	1	0
N	**74**	**74**