

THE EFFECTS OF ENGLISH ACCENTED SPEECHES, SPECIFIC CONTENT KNOWLEDGE,
AND TEST-TAKING STRATEGIES ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION OF HIGH AND LOW
EFL ACHIEVERS

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ผลกระทบของสำเนียงภาษาอังกฤษที่หลากหลาย พื้นฐานความรู้เฉพาะและกลยุทธ์ในการสอบต่อ
ทักษะการฟังเพื่อความเข้าใจของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศที่มีระดับความสามารถสูง
และต่ำ



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พรชนก สุขพันธ์ : ผลกระทบของสำเนียงภาษาอังกฤษที่หลากหลาย พื้นฐานความรู้เฉพาะและกลยุทธ์ในการสอบต่อทักษะการฟังเพื่อความเข้าใจของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศที่มีระดับความสามารถสูงและต่ำ (THE EFFECTS OF ENGLISH ACCENTED SPEECHES, SPECIFIC CONTENT KNOWLEDGE, AND TEST-TAKING STRATEGIES ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION OF HIGH AND LOW EFL ACHIEVERS) อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก: ผศ. ดร. จิรดา วุฒยมายกร, 299 หน้า.

การวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษา (๑) ผลกระทบของตัวแปรหลักสามตัวแปรได้แก่ สำเนียงภาษาอังกฤษที่หลากหลาย พื้นฐานความรู้เฉพาะ และ กลยุทธ์ในการสอบต่อทักษะการฟังเพื่อความเข้าใจของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศที่มีความสามารถสูงและต่ำ, (๒) ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างสามตัวแปรหลักนี้ต่อทักษะการฟังเพื่อความเข้าใจของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศที่มีความสามารถสูงและต่ำ, และ (๓) เจตคติของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศที่มีความสามารถสูงและต่ำต่อสำเนียงภาษาอังกฤษที่หลากหลาย กลุ่มตัวอย่างในการวิจัยครั้งนี้ได้แก่นักศึกษาชั้นปีที่ ๓ จำนวน ๘๐ คน จากคณะนิเทศศาสตร์ ผู้วิจัยได้แบ่งกลุ่มตัวอย่างนี้เป็น ๒ กลุ่ม ได้แก่ กลุ่มผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศที่มีความสามารถสูงและต่ำ โดยใช้ผลเกรดจากวิชาภาษาอังกฤษพื้นฐานสองวิชาและคำนวณด้วยคะแนนมาตรฐานแบบคะแนน ± 1 เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการวิจัยมี ๓ ประเภท คือ แบบทดสอบการฟังเพื่อความเข้าใจ แบบสอบถามสองชุด ชุดที่ ๑ เกี่ยวกับกลวิธีในการสอบ ชุดที่ ๒ เกี่ยวกับเจตคติต่อสำเนียงภาษาอังกฤษที่หลากหลาย และการสัมภาษณ์แบบกึ่งโครงสร้างหลังการทำแบบทดสอบ ผู้วิจัยใช้สถิติการวิเคราะห์ความแปรปรวนทางเดียวแบบวัดซ้ำ สถิติการทดสอบความแตกต่างค่าเฉลี่ยของกลุ่มตัวอย่างสองกลุ่มไม่อิสระ และการวิเคราะห์ค่าสหสัมพันธ์แบบเพียร์สันในข้อมูลเชิงปริมาณ ทางด้านบทสัมภาษณ์ซึ่งเป็นข้อมูลเชิงคุณภาพผู้วิจัยใช้การวิเคราะห์แบบเนื้อหา

ผลการวิจัยพบว่า (๑) สำเนียงภาษาอังกฤษที่หลากหลาย พื้นฐานความรู้เฉพาะและกลยุทธ์ในการสอบ มีผลกระทบต่อทักษะการฟังเพื่อความเข้าใจของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ นอกจากนี้ผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศที่มีความสามารถสูงใช้กลยุทธ์ในการสอบมากกว่าผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศที่มีความสามารถต่ำ (๒) พบความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างตัวแปรหลักสามตัวแปรต่อทักษะการฟังเพื่อความเข้าใจของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศที่มีความสามารถสูงและต่ำอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ และ (๓) พบความแตกต่างของค่าเฉลี่ยในการวัดเจตคติต่อสำเนียงภาษาอังกฤษที่หลากหลายจากผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศที่มีความสามารถสูงและต่ำอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ ผลการวิจัยนี้มีส่วนช่วยเพิ่มความเข้าใจในเรื่องการประเมินทักษะการฟังเพื่อความเข้าใจที่ประกอบไปด้วยลักษณะตัวกระตุ้นการฟังและลักษณะของผู้เรียนที่แตกต่างกัน พร้อมกันนี้งานวิจัยเสนอแนะว่าในการพัฒนาแบบทดสอบการฟังควรมีหลักเกณฑ์ในการคัดเลือกสำเนียงภาษาอังกฤษที่หลากหลาย พื้นฐานความรู้เฉพาะและข้อคำถามให้ประสานกับการใช้กลยุทธ์การสอบที่เหมาะสมเพื่อให้สอดคล้องกับโครงสร้างและวัตถุประสงค์ของการเรียนการสอนและการทดสอบทางภาษา

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5587786920 : MAJOR ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

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PORNCHANOK SUKPAN: THE EFFECTS OF ENGLISH ACCENTED SPEECHES, SPECIFIC CONTENT KNOWLEDGE, AND TEST-TAKING STRATEGIES ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION OF HIGH AND LOW EFL ACHIEVERS. ADVISOR: ASST. PROF. JIRADA WUDTHAYAGORN, Ph.D., 299 pp.

This study aimed to examine (1) the effects of three main variables: English-accented speeches, specific content knowledge, and test-taking strategies on listening comprehension of high and low EFL learners. It also investigated (2) the relationship among these three variables on listening comprehension of high and low EFL achievers, and (3) the attitudes of both high and low EFL achievers towards English-accented speech. Eighty third-year university students from the Faculty of Communication Arts were purposively selected and classified into two different English proficiency groups: high and low regarding the z score of ± 1 on the average grades of two prerequisite English courses. There were three types of research instruments: a listening comprehension test, two sets of questionnaires: test-taking strategies and English-accented speech attitudes, and a retrospective semi-structured interview. Repeated measures analysis of Variance (ANOVA), the paired sample t-test, and Pearson correlation coefficients were used for analyzing quantitative data. The qualitative data from the interview was proceeded by the content analysis.

The results revealed (1) a statistically significant impact of English accented speeches, specific content knowledge, and test taking strategies on listening comprehension of EFL achievers.. Additionally, high EFL achievers reported more test taking strategies than low EFL achievers. (2) It was also found the relationship among three main variables on listening comprehension of high and low EFL achievers at the significant level. Finally, the result showed (3) a statistically significant difference among the attitudinal mean ratings of English accented speeches by both high and low EFL learners. The study provides more insights into assessing listening comprehension when some characteristics of listening stimuli and learners are different. It also suggests that the development of the listening comprehension test must be in line with the appropriate criteria of selecting English accented speeches, specific content knowledge, and test items associated with the use of test-taking strategies relevant to the construct and objective of class instruction and language testing.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and Statement of the Problem

Listening skill is one of the most important tools in the communication process for interpreting the message and acquiring new information speakers intend to convey (Goh, 2014). Through attentive listening, listeners sometimes recall their repertoire of linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge in order to understand and interpret messages they hear as well as indirectly determining the characteristics of the speakers in terms of age, occupations, and ethnics to achieve the communicative purpose and enrich the relationship among their communicators in the real-time conversation. The evidence also showed that over half proportion of the total communication time was devoted to listening skill, followed by speaking spent 20-35 percent, reading spent 10-20 percent and writing spent 5-15 percent (Pearson, Nelson, Titsworth, & Harter, 2006; Wagner, 2014; Wong, 2012).

It has been about a decade observed by Lynch (2011) from nine volumes of *the Journal of English for Academic Purposes* that only the less number of studies has been conducted on listening comprehension skill than any other language skills: reading, speaking and writing. One reason is that the listening comprehension skill is viewed as the hardest task to teach and measure because listening skill deals with an individual's mental complex process which was interacted between two different types of background knowledge: linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge (Buck, 2001). That means listeners have to analyze and synthesize the spoken message with coordination to both linguistic knowledge from phonology, lexis to discourse structure and non-linguistic knowledge including topic, context, and world knowledge when listening together with the use of listeners' own strategies. This problem leads teachers in the typical classroom settings to pay less attention on this skill than on any other three communicative skills. Some teachers decided to organize listening activities

similar to a form of testing that learners are assigned to listen to passages and answer the given questions without any guide or real support (Wagner, 2014). Another reason is it cannot be taught or assessed entirely separately from the spoken text. Listeners require a high degree of attention to uncontrolled acoustic inputs and produce the invisible output in forms of listening comprehension (Field, 2008; Park, 2004). Put it another way, ability to listen always goes together with spoken texts interpreted from the listeners' cognitive system, which cannot be directly observed, controlled, and described.

In language testing, listening skill can be measured by several types of test, depending upon the purpose of the measurement, such as proficiency, diagnose, placement, or achievement. To establish effectively a good quality of the listening test, six key terms: validity, reliability, authenticity, interactiveness, practicality and impact should be carefully taken into test developers' consideration (Bachman & Palmer, 2007). Regarding the purpose of the measurement, test designers, test assessors or test developers must be aware of two major threats of test validity: construct-irrelevant variance and construct underrepresentation which might lead to the score misinterpretation (Messick, 1988), especially in the issue of test-taking strategies (Cohen, 2012). Moreover, Buck (2001) claimed that some main factors possibly hindering the validity of the listening comprehension test can be a variety of acoustic inputs and listening texts. In terms of acoustic inputs, Jenkins (2006a) observed several issues of the *TESOL Quarterly* journal and found that this variable has widely held interest and been debated under the Standard English perspective among linguists, sociocultural theorists, second language theorists and language assessment scholars. That is, using only native English speakers might violate the test authenticity under the target language use (TLU) domain when English has been spoken as an international language (McKay, 2007) or a global language (Crystal, 1997).

Under a great diversity of English users around the world, Jenkins (2006b) attempted to encourage the related scholars to discover whether it is fair to test English using only the norms of native speakers. The Kachruvian framework provided

a clear illustration of the nature of using English, not restricted only within native English countries, into three distinguished concentric categories: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Extending Circle with relation to the historical English acquisition, cultural diversity, and purposes (Kachru, 1986). Firstly, the Inner Circle zone refers to the countries where people speak English as a native or primary language such as the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, and Canada. Secondly, the Outer Circle, or Extended Circle, is described as the multilingual countries where people speak English as the second language (ESL) or one of the official languages such as Singapore, India, the Philippines, Malawi, and over other territories. Finally, the Expanding Circle is defined as monolingual countries where people have their own language and speak English as a foreign language (EFL) such as China, Japan, Korea and Thailand.

Based on the Kachru's framework, this study mainly paid attention to the Expanding Circle or EFL context for many reasons. One reason is there seems to be an increasing number of its English-speaking bilingual speakers than those in the Outer Circle countries where English has an official status influenced by historical colonization power (McKay, 2007). Another reason is the use of the English language is restricted for particular purposes (Crystal, 1997). To illustrate, Pawanchik, Kamil, Hilmi, and Baten (2011) studied the need of English from students who came from the EFL contexts such as China, Thailand, Korea, Qatar, and Saudi Arabia. They pointed out that the EFL learners mostly use English for study and socialization but rarely used it at home. That is, English becomes the medium of social interaction without control by native English speakers under the concept of 'no one owns English anymore' (Hadla, 2013) and without ethnic and racial boundaries, providing more on innovation, development and changes of the English language. The consequence of this event is the emergence of another English use term, English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) referring to the way in which speakers with different first languages communicate to each other in English (Leung & Lewkowitz, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2005). It can be stated that English can function as a global lingua franca which is one dimension of the more general phenomenon of 'English as an international language' or 'World Englishes' (Seidlhofer, 2005).

In Thailand, the Thai language is spoken as the native language and official language. Generally, English is chosen to be a medium of communication as ELF or EFL when the negotiations with other people who have different cultures and languages are conducted under such particular and important settings affecting to their living as in politics, trade, tourism, mass media and education. An instance of this is the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), one national politic policy that English is expected to be a regional medium language among 10 country members that have different native languages.

Because of the importance of English in Asian and global areas, the Thai Ministry of Education makes every endeavor to place the English language as a compulsory subject both in the entire primary and secondary school levels based on the Basic Education Core Curriculum A.D. 2008 of Thailand and in the university level curriculums under the policy of the Higher Education Commission A.D. 2003. This aims to elevate the national standard of the education with the efficiency of English use to meet the requirement of the regional and world community, to continue lifelong education with conducting research projects that benefit the country's development, and to equip migrant workers with English skill and knowledge.

With respect to national policies, most academic institutions in Thailand have placed much emphasis on English-medium instruction starting from fundamental English courses to the advanced courses as well as establishing bilingual or international programs or even intensive English language programs where either core subjects or overall courses are taught in English. As noticed, these institutions recruit more native English speaking teachers (NESTs) regarding the evidence from job advertisements in local newspapers (Sinhaneti, 2009), or even cooperate with native English academic organizations like British Council to help them achieve the goal. It is believed that NESTs have expressed the good model of pronunciation and western cultural insight (Alseweed, 2012). This makes the status of NESTs more valuable in the sight of employers, students, and parents of students. It leads to unequal classification

of English teachers between inner and non-inner circle English teachers under the criteria of recruitment, welfare and the amount of salary (Braine, 2010).

To make a compromise solution to the discrimination between these two different sides, several empirical studies (e.g. Phothongsunan, 2005; Watson Todd & Pojanapunya, 2009) were conducted on the attitudes and preference of local students towards the inner circle and non-inner circle English teachers in various factors such as accent intelligibility, teaching quality and language competency. The findings revealed that students preferred to study with non-native English teachers because the teachers understood the learning difficulty and guide them to reach the learning objective. Another popular way to measure ESL and EFL learners' English proficiency is taking the standardized English test such as Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), the International English language Testing System (IELTS), and the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC). The score of these tests seems to influence on the learners' future career and social expectations and values on English competences (Prapphal, 2008). These indications can increase the balance of both different ethnical teachers in the pedagogical area (Braine, 2010) with belief that nonnative English speaking teachers have been valued as the good model of successful language learners (Hadla, 2013; Walkinshaw & Duong, 2012).

It remains contrastive to the language testing area. As noticed, a variety of native English speaker voices from inner circle countries has currently been accepted as the major listening inputs of testing in order to promote the 'face validity' of the listening test in the sight of test stakeholders, including the test developers, test users and the test takers themselves (Wagner, 2014). Consequently, it provided the negative impact on non-native English teachers, especially in the degree of low employment rate in the English-medium pedagogical institutions and also affected the pluralistic communication dimension (Abeywickrama, 2013; Braine, 2010). This issue has continuously been problematic because it contradicts the real-life situations that 80% of the English teachers worldwide are nonnative English speakers (Braine, 2010). Furthermore, the use of only inner circle English accents might reflect the unrealistic

interpretation of English proficiency test scoring results in both high- and low-stake tests. It resists the concept of the target language domain referring to the situation or context in which test takers will be using the language outside of the test itself (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). This might narrowly represent the test-takers' listening proficiency in the real world settings. Not only this, the score result of the tests insisting the use of only native English accents could hardly be construed as a determiner of how much or how well students can apply their listening proficiency in the real-life situation, English as an International language (McKay, 2007), or a global language (Crystal, 1997). Keep in mind that this score is very important to test-takers' life because it determines their exact level of listening competence, recognized as one key decision, providing strongly positive or negative impact towards their academic admissions and career promotion/ recruitment in the coming future.

One advantage of using English accented speeches as a test input or stimuli in assessing test-takers' aural proficiency is under the dimension of authentic alternative in the language testing area (Abeywickrama, 2013; Matsuura, Chiba, Mahoney, & Rilling, 2014; Wagner, 2014). There have been numerous studies showing the evidences of using the variety of English accents and those provided contrastive findings. Abeywickrama (2013), for instance, claimed that there is no impact of using a variety of English accented speech: Chinese, Korean, Sri Lankan on the listening proficiency of test-takers from different English use contexts: Korea, Sri Lanka, and Brazil and studied in the US universities. Conversely, Harding (2011) found that Mandarin Chinese and Japanese test takers had some advantages on the listening texts which were spoken by the same L1 speakers as the test takers. In the Thai context, there are a few studies conducting on this topic under the degree of authenticity and bias of the listening comprehension test. Suppatkul (2009) revealed there was no significant difference between scores of Thai students listening to the L1-shared and American English accented speakers but some significant differences occurred on the scores of listening to Filipino English accented speech, categorized as an unfamiliar accent. Another study conducted by Boonyarattapan (2006) was discovered that Thai students gained the higher score of a listening comprehension test native-speaker voices from the US, UK,

and Australia than that including nonnative-speaker voices from Japan, Malaysia, China, and Singapore. As noticed, a Thai-English accent with belief as one familiar voice was excluded in her study. The unclear-cut result inspired the researcher to investigate the effect of using a variety of English accents under the categories of World Englishes: the inner, the outer, and the expanding circles towards Thai students who originally live in Thailand where the interaction between native and non-native English speakers seemed to occur less frequently than the communication among non-native English users (Matsuda, 2003).

Besides this, the study also places an emphasis on listening texts in terms of specific content knowledge as one obstacle of listeners themselves to achieve in the listening task during taking a test. It might also influence the test fairness, the unequal accessibility to the test (Kunnan, 2014). Content knowledge is defined as ‘the concepts, principles, relationships, processes, and applications students know within a given academic subject, appropriate for them in order to organize knowledge’ (Özden, 2008, p. 634). Test developers and designers as well as teachers should be put much awareness on selecting the test content based on the purpose of testing related or unrelated to what is taught in a particular course (Rost, 2002). As noticed, a test can be functioned in many ways. To illustrate, in classrooms, the test can serve as an achievement test, one of the main instruments teachers have commonly used to measure learners’ level of learning in a particular instructional program related to the academic curriculum decisions at the end of the course. On the other hand, another type of the test like the proficiency tests aims to globally measure the test-takers’ ability to use a language or understand general content areas without respect to a curriculum (Carr, 2011). This study cast doubt on the issue of content knowledge enhancing or impeding the listening comprehension, especially in the achievement test in case that a test-taker is assumed to gain more specific knowledge after the course completed and not be able to heavily rely on acoustic signals.

Interestingly, there are a few studies placing much attention on the effect of background knowledge on listening comprehension when comparing numerous

studies conducted on schema influencing reading processes (Marzuki, Bahri, Pit, & Majeri, 2013; Salahshuri, 2011). As noticed, the studies on the relationship between schema and listening comprehension in terms of lexical knowledge provided some contradict results. The study of Kobeleva (2012), for example, aimed to investigate the influence of familiar and unfamiliar proper names on ESL learners' listening comprehension. The result was shown that Names Known groups received higher scores than that of Names Unknown. That means, the presence of unfamiliar proper names was the barrier of understanding spoken English and was rated in the higher degree of task difficulty. In contrast, Chang (2007) investigated the effect of vocabulary preparation prior to a listening comprehension test on L2 learners' vocabulary performance, listening comprehension, confidence levels. It was found that allowing students to study vocabulary before a test could improve their vocabulary knowledge and confidence but not in their listening comprehension. Because of some result conflict, there should be more empirical studies on 'background knowledge' to prove or disprove its influence on listening processes in order to reach the high degree of test validity.

Theoretically, English accented speech is placed in the form of linguistic knowledge listeners have to decode systematically through level of linguistic units whereas content knowledge is categorized in forms of non-linguistic knowledge listeners use to interpret the contextual meaning. It is hypothesized that these two factors might play a powerful role on the listening comprehension achievement and the score interpretation. Regarding the compensatory model (Field, 2008), it is assumed that the over-reliance on one type of interactive processes might take place when the inconsistency of the other type emerges. Field also insisted that listening to a foreign language is assisted by an interrelationship between linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge, called an interactive-compensatory mechanism helping listeners to fulfil themselves the understanding of particular texts. To illustrate, listeners with in-depth processing of bottom up information may reduce the need for rich contextual information. The contrastive result occurs when listeners are in the high level of confidence with top-down information. Some assumed that the degree in using

interactive mechanism: bottom-up and top-down processes between L2 listening comprehension and L2 reading comprehension are similar. Salahshuri (2011) responded against this statement. Park (2004) also argued that linguistic and background knowledge significantly affected on L2 listening comprehension while they moderately affected on L2 reading comprehension. However, there are a few studies empirically focusing on both variables that represent from different forms of knowledge: linguistic and non-linguistic on listening comprehension.

At Dhurakij Pundit University in Thailand, a listening test mainly serves as an achievement test to measure how well students employed their listening skill and how much students master the course content in the scope of the particular course objective (Carr, 2011). The quality of assessment should be based on a theoretically-grounded and empirically oriented approach related to the listening process in terms of interlanguage competence factors like external contextual factors, namely topics and purpose of listening and personal characteristics (e.g. listening tactics and strategies). It is under the concept of the curriculum-related test designed by a teacher related to classroom lessons and units within a total curriculum to reach the standard criterion of the course without comparing to the performance of other students. In each semester of the first two academic years, students are assigned to take the listening test before final examination in the computer laboratory when they enroll compulsory English courses: Remedial English, General English 1, General English 2 and English for specific purposes. In each course, teachers design the test tasks including general or specific content and listening sub-skills relevant to the course objectives and the acoustic texts are spoken by native-like accents from UK, USA, Philippines, and Thailand. The test sets of each English course seem to be biased for best (Brown, 2004) because most teachers prepare their students for the test by teaching both all contents from the course lessons together with beneficial strategies reliant on consciousness and a goal-directedness (Goh, 2002).

Regarding the aforementioned situations and previous research, this study aimed to investigate the effects of three different variables: English accented speech, specific content knowledge, and test-taking strategies on a listening comprehension

test taken by high and low English achievers. The first two variables represent different listening processes: bottom-up, and top-down. These become one of valuable evidences proving or disproving the impact of test inputs including the varieties of English accented speech and the listening texts including academic background knowledge. It is assumed that the test-takers' listening comprehension score make some inferences on test validation (Alderson, 2000, cited in Phakiti, 2006). The last variable, the use of test-taking strategies, represents the psychological characteristic together with the attitude on the listening input including English accented speech. Inevitably, listening tactics (Goh, 2002) and test-taking strategies (Cohen, 2012) are viewed as one of valuable tools to foster listeners in different English levels easily coping with the difficulties during taking a listening comprehension test besides linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge. Keep in mind that the test-taking strategies might cause the invalidity of the test because of the mismatch between the intention of test makers and the thinking process of test-takers (Cohen, 2012). A challenge of teachers is to design the test tasks matching the TLU tasks with less interference of test wiseness strategies, one of test-taking strategies. The tasks should respond to particular course objectives under the aspect of knowledge application for the future. The study, therefore, covers five objectives.

1.2 Research questions:

- a) To what extent do different English accents affect the listening comprehension ability test scores of high and low English achievers?
- b) To what extent does test-takers' specific content knowledge affect their listening comprehension ability test scores of high and low English achievers?
- c) What are the test-taking strategies used by high and low English achievers in the listening test?
- d) Is there any relationship among English accented speeches, specific content knowledge and test-taking strategies on listening comprehension ability test scores of high and low English achievers?
- e) What are the attitudes of both high and low English achievers towards using English accented speech in the listening test?

1.3 Objectives of the study

The objectives of study are as follows:

- a) to investigate the effect of English accented speeches on listening comprehension of high and low English achievers;
- b) to examine the effect of specific content knowledge on listening comprehension of high and low English achievers;
- c) to explore test-taking strategies used by high and low English achievers in the listening comprehension test;
- d) to analyze the relationship among English accented speeches, specific content knowledge, and test-taking strategies on a listening comprehension of high and low English achievers; and
- e) to study high and low English achievers' attitudes towards a variety of English accented speeches.

1.4 Statement of hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There are differences of high and low English achievers' listening ability test scores affected by English accented.

Hypothesis 2: There are differences of high and low English achievers' listening ability test scores affected by specific content knowledge.

Hypothesis 3: High English achievers implement different test-taking strategies from low English achievers.

Hypothesis 4: There is a relationship among English accented speeches, specific content knowledge and test-taking strategies on listening comprehension ability of high and low English achievers.

Hypothesis 5: High English achievers express different attitudes or preferences towards the varieties of English speakers from low English achievers.

1.5 Assumptions of the study

- a) This study was assumed that test takers put full effort on the listening comprehension test because they were informed their listening test score

results will be one part of the total 100 percent of the learners' evaluation of the course.

- b) It was assumed that students provided valid data in the questionnaires and the interviews. They were informed that the result of their questionnaire and interviews was useful for further development of the test and the course.
- c) It was assumed that students mastered specific content knowledge after completing English for Communication Arts and they were unfamiliar with the specific content of Business Laws based on the university curriculum.

1.6 Scopes of the study

This study aimed to discover the effects of a variety of English accents and academic background knowledge together with test-taking strategies towards the listening performance of Thai students in the university level. The following are the scopes of the study:

- a) There were three independent variables—English accented speech, specific content knowledge and test-taking strategies. The dependent variable was the score result of the listening comprehension test taken by the research participants;
- b) The first independent variable consisted of one native English speaker and three main English accented speeches. The selection of each speaker was regarded with the Kachruvian paradigm with reference to the most populated statistics by the World Bank Group in 2014. One native English speaker was from the United States of America. Two English accented speeches consisted of one Indian English and another Chinese English. The final accent was Thai-English spoken by a local teacher frequently heard in the classroom setting;
- c) The second independent variable was the specific content knowledge participants have learnt and experienced during studying in the English for Communication Arts as their English compulsory course in the semester;

- d) The last independent variable was the test-taking strategies based on Cohen (2014) including listening strategies, test-management strategies, and test-wiseness strategies that the participants employed to overcome some difficulties during taking the listening comprehension test.
- e) The dependent variable of the study was the score of the listening comprehension test taken by high and low English achievers. The test aimed to measure ability to comprehend the spoken texts influenced by three mentioned independent variables;
- f) The participants were the third-year undergraduate students studying in the Faculty of Communication Arts at Dhurakij Pundit University;
- g) This study did not control the teaching styles, teaching methods, and lesson plans designed by the course team of teachers in the classroom.

1.7 Limitations of the study

There were some limitations in the study. Firstly, English accented speakers in the study were not randomly selected among a group of each World Englishes type but all of them were the researcher's colleagues from the doctoral program of English as an International Language, and from the researcher's workplace. Their genuine English accented speech compatibly represented three main circles of World Englishes with the first top rank of the most population around the world. Secondly, some features of the speakers' voice: speech rate, educational professional sound, and gender, were practically in control, except the natural voice and the style of each speaker. Finally, the research study included the small number of the participants in only one academic institution, Dhurakij Pundit University. Therefore, the findings might not be completely generalized to all populations. Under the careful awareness of these limitations, the researcher put an attempt to circumvent the drawbacks and conduct the trustworthy research.

1.8 Definitions of terms

a) English accented speeches

‘English accented speech’ refers to three language use contexts: the inner circle, the outer circle and the expanding circle (Kachru, 1986).

b) Inner-Circle English speech

The ‘Inner-Circle English speech’ refers to one North American-English accented speech: American English. Regarding the model of World Englishes of Kachru (1986), English is originally spoken as a native language (ENL) and the first language (L1) in the inner circle countries like the United State of America (USA) and the United Kingdom (UK).

c) Non-Inner-Circle English speeches

The ‘non-Inner-Circle English speeches’ refers to two language use contexts: the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle of Englishes. The former was represented by Indian-English while the latter was presented by Chinese-English and Thai-English.

India, one example of the Outer Circle countries, is the multilingual country where people speak Hindi and English as an official language whereas China is an example of the Expanding Circle countries where people speak English as a foreign language (EFL) and Standard Mandarin is served as an official language. Similarly, Thailand is another example of the expanding circle countries where all participants of the study live, study English as a foreign language and speak Thai as the first language.

d) Specific content knowledge

The ‘specific content knowledge’ refers to the content knowledge of two main academic areas: Communication Arts and non-Communication Arts.

‘Communication Arts knowledge’ refers to the specific content knowledge test-takers acquired during studying in the English for Communication Arts course with respect to the course syllabus. The content of the listening test were

similar to class lessons all participants have learnt based on the compulsory course regarding the curriculum of the university.

The 'non-Communication Arts knowledge' refers to the specific content knowledge of Business Laws, which was placed as one compulsory course of the Faculty of Business Administration, but was not included in the course curriculum of the Faculty of Communication Arts. That means, the participants of the study were unfamiliar with it based on the class experience.

e) High English achievers

'High English achievers' refers to a group of test takers whose EFL proficiency level was between A and B grade above the average of the total mean scores of two prerequisite courses of English foundation and in the z score of +1 based on the University curriculum. That means this group was very good at English reading, writing, speaking, and listening when comparing to the average population' mean scores from the two prerequisite English courses.

f) Low English achievers

'Low English achievers' refers to a group of test takers whose EFL proficiency level was between D+ and D grade in average from two prerequisite courses of English foundation and in the z score of -1 based on the University curriculum. It was interpreted that this group was quite weak at English reading, writing, speaking, and listening when comparing to the average population' mean scores from the two prerequisite English courses.

g) A listening comprehension test

The listening test is an achievement test containing a variety of English accents from both native English and non-native English speakers under the familiar and unfamiliar test content based on the course syllabus. The test will be developed by the researcher with the aim to measure students' ability to understand the spoken texts of target language use domains through both global and local listening subskills in order to generalize knowledge to real-life situations.

h) Listening comprehension ability

‘Listening comprehension ability’ refers to the test scores assessed by the listening comprehension test including four different types of English accented speech: American, Indian, Chinese, and Thai under the specific test content based on the particular course syllabus.

i) Test-taking strategies

‘Test-taking strategies’ refers to the consciously selected processes that test-takers use to overcome the difficulty of item-response demands in the test-taking tasks at hand. These strategies are divided into three sections: listening strategies, test-management strategies, and test-wiseness strategies (Cohen, 2012) in forms of an adapted questionnaire and a retrospective interview.

j) Attitude

‘Attitude’ refers to the preference and feeling the learners express towards the English-accented speeches in the listening comprehension test based on their experience and temperament in the attitudinal questionnaire under three main traits: personness, communicability, and testing potentiality. Frequently, the term ‘perception’ was mentioned and included in the attitudinal studies (e.g. Abeywickrama, 2013; Chien, 2014), in order to examine listeners’ evaluation on English varieties based on their experience and temperament.

1.9 Significance of the study

The study focused on three main variables at a time: English accented speech, specific background knowledge and test-taking strategies in a listening comprehension test under the Thai context. It is important to provide both quantitative and qualitative evidence for test stakeholders including test developers, teachers, students, and also the educational institutions in order to prove or disprove the authenticity and bias of the test. The result of the study may be beneficial in several ways:

Firstly, it helps the test developers to make decision, which types of the listen input: native English speaking or non-native English speaking accents and what types of test content should be placed in the listening comprehension test. These two variables should be taken into consideration to be included into the description of the listening test rubric to increase the degree of the test authenticity and the purpose of the test. Furthermore, some insights of using the test-taking strategies by test-takers, provided in the findings, assist the test designers to be carefully aware of writing the multiple-choice form of the test. That is, the alternatives for each item should be written in relevance to the test construct rather than the cleverness of circumventing an assessment of the language skills. This can prove the reliable and valid result of test score affecting the interpretation to TLU domain.

Secondly, it can help teachers understand some difficulties their students encounter. This encourages teachers to focus more on producing listening materials spoken by English accented speech and facilitate useful feedback to further develop their quiz or exam items that cannot be easily responded by the mean of test taking strategies. Additionally, the findings might be a guide for teachers to produce the teaching materials or to create an environment of self-learning that expose students to world knowledge. Finally, the findings expectedly motivate teachers to train their students the listening strategies or even the test-taking strategies to achieve the purpose of listening tasks.

Thirdly, it can provide some directions for material developers to use and include the authentic texts into class. It is undeniable that classroom materials including various topics of listening texts or specific content knowledge are produced as the fundamental language input assigned for students to learn and practice as well as being assessed in order to prepare and develop themselves together with accumulating world knowledge for their particular goals.

Finally, the findings allow the students to raise more awareness of the 'real world' English accents or World Englishes speeches and to gain some insights into the way they used each element of the test-taking strategies including listening strategies,

test management strategies, and test wideness strategies to deal with the listening comprehension tasks. This can guide students to fulfil some particular problematic gaps of listening comprehension and autonomously improve their listening performance.



CHAPTER II

Literature review

This chapter is divided into three main sections: section 2.1: the overview of listening skills; section 2.2: the overview of a listening test; and section 2.3: the overview of test-taking strategies. It aimed to review the theoretical frameworks and the previous literature of the underlying variables of the study.

Section 2.1: Overview of Listening skill

2.1.1 Meaning of listening skill

Several scholars provided the definition of listening skill in many ways. The term, listening skill, for example, was defined by Buck (2001), as a complex process involving invisible mental system to understand and interpret the spoken input by using both linguistic knowledge from phonology, lexis to discourse structure and non-linguistic knowledge including topic, context, and world background. Pearson et al. (2006) gave the meaning of the listening skill as the active process of receiving, constructing meaning from and responding to spoken or non-verbal message that involves the ability to retain information, as well as to react empathically or appreciatively to spoken or nonverbal messages. Vandergrift (1999) insisted that listening is a complex, active process of interpretation in which listeners match they hear with what they already know. Wong (2012) stated that “listening is an active process that engages the listener in a variety of cognitive processes” (p. 289). Rost and Wilson (2013) pinpointed that listen skill is an interactive process involving five main frames: affective, top-down, bottom-up, interactive, and autonomous processes. Flowerdew and Miller (2012) claimed that listening skill can take care of itself like the ‘Cinderella’ skill’, considered as the foundation of language acquisition before babies were born, but this basic communication ability has been paid less attention on actively developing in the pedagogical area.

As noticed, the mentioned definitions of listening skill take four orientations: receptive, constructive, collaborative, or transformative in a focus (Rost, 2002). There is no question that listening is an interactive skill directly proceeded by the cognitive mechanism in listeners' mind starting from receiving messages from the speaker and constructing together with representing meaning to creating meaning through involvement, imagination, and empathy, if possible by negotiating meaning with the speaker and giving some kinds of response.

2.1.2 Purposes of Listening

There are four purposes of listening enabling listeners' cognitive process to activate: active listening, emphatic listening, critical listening, and listening for enjoyment (Pearson et al., 2006; Wong, 2012). With the goal of understanding particular information and gain new knowledge, 'active listening' enhances listeners paying carefully attention to what speakers said. Additionally, listeners put an effort to paraphrase what they hear together with checking the accuracy before providing either the verbal and non-verbal forms of response or feedback. 'Emphatic listening' is one of good examples of non-verbal forms that listeners' mindfulness and empathy are expressed to a particular interlocutor. The third type of listening, critical listening, challenges listeners' working memory by analyzing and evaluating the spoken text in terms of accuracy, meaningfulness, and utility. Beside this, listeners need to separate the opinion from the fact, especially when receiving information from commercials or telemarketing calls. The last one is enjoyment listening that listeners need in relaxing time and chooses for pleasure like listening to music.

2.1.3 Channels of listening

Channels of conveying a spoken text are divided into two types: one-way and two-way channels (Goh, 2014). The one-way channel is the way to listen through recorded materials in textbooks, radio programs, songs, films, large lectures, or even through a live speech presentation without directly negotiating with the speaker for some clarification (Field, 2008). Conversely, the two-way channel includes casual

conversations, telephone conversations, videoconferencing, formal or informal interviews, and group discussions. This channel provided listeners a lot of chances to participate and respond together with negotiating for more information which might not match their linguistic knowledge, experience, or factual knowledge.

2.1.4 Listening in the communication mechanism

Basically, the communication mechanism starts from the speakers encoding the auditory messages through some particular channels. Then listeners acts as the receivers putting an attempt to decode these messages. The following are the key elements influencing listening comprehension to reach the achievement of particular communication purposes: (a) stimulus or sound utterances, (b) role of listeners, (c) attention, (d) working memory, (e) schema and (f) background knowledge (Rost & Wilson, 2013) as seen in Figure 1.

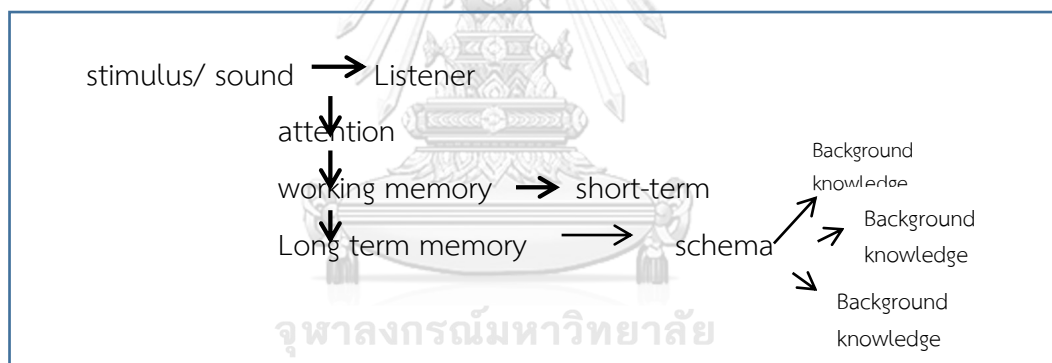


Figure 1 *The cognitive process adapted from Pearson et al., 2006, p. 107*

a) Stimuli or sound utterances

Listening cannot be taught or learnt entirely separately even though it seemed to be a separate skill. That is, listening activities require spoken texts produced by interlocutors under the perspective of comprehensible input, one of five hypotheses on second language acquisition, proposed by Krashen (2009). That is, listeners acquire the language structure and new information from stage i to stage $i+1$, where 'understand' means that the stimuli is focused on the meaning. In this point, three sorts of speech modification are exploited to make the stimuli more comprehensible

for EFL learners: foreigner-talk, teacher-talk, and interlanguage talk. These can reduce the difficulty and complexity of listening texts for EFL learners. Rost (2002) noticed that the processes of ‘comprehending’ input and the process of acquiring the L2 through oral input are different. The former, comprehending inputs, refers to getting the meaning from input whereas the latter, acquiring the L2 through oral input, refers to processing input in order to learn the language.

b) Roles of the listeners

In the communicative mechanism involving in using messages to generate meaning, there are two roles listeners can play: non-participants and participants (Goh, 2014). As non-participants, listeners have few or no opportunities to directly negotiate with the speaker for some clarification, especially when listening to recorded materials in a textbook, radio programs, songs, films, large lecture, or live speech presentations. Another role is as participants. In this point, listeners are allowed to participate and respond together with chances in negotiating for more information in case that information does not match their linguistic knowledge, experience, or factual knowledge. This event usually takes place in casual conversations, telephone conversations, videoconferencing, formal or informal interviews, and a group discussion.

c) Attention

Pearson et al. (2006) categorized ‘attention’ for listening into two terms: selective and automatic attention. Selective attention is the conscious focus listeners selectively place to the acoustic input speakers produced which are recognized as the important information. On the other hand, automatic attention is likely to resemble the sensory memory (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005). It refers to the instinctive focus listeners give to stimuli without deliberate effort or conscious planning such as surrounding noises. It might be lost within one second.

The degree of attention can differentiate apparently the meaning of listening skill and listening strategies (Goh, 2014). That is, listening skill refers to the way listeners decode auditory messages with automatized and unconscious planning whereas

listening strategies allows listeners to coordinate with their various cognitive processes to consciously deal with acoustic texts. The listening strategies will be discussed more in section 2.3.

d) Working memory

Working memory is the part of our consciousness through short-term memory and long-term recall that interprets and assigns meaning to stimuli we pay attention to (Pearson et al., 2006, p. 108). In the short-term memory, when listeners hear the auditory message, they will have about 15 seconds to make a decision what to do with it. If the message contains old information, they will check it against the existing information stored in the long-term memory. If listeners receive new information, they have choices to abandon, retain, or even retrieve it when necessary. Thus, the long-term memory stored a huge amount of old and new information, considered in terms of usefulness for the future.

e) Schema

The term, schema can be formulated as the module of knowledge dealing with the activation and modification of conceptual knowledge to text comprehension proceeding in listener's mind (Rost, 2002). Piaget (1950, cited in McLeod, 2009) claimed that a schema is the basic building block of intelligent behavior or a way of organizing knowledge. Field (2013) concluded that it is "a knowledge structure containing all an individual knows about and associates with a particular concept" (p. 92). It can be said that schema derived from personal experiences and learning until it is countless in memory. That is, new knowledge is created and stored in either short-term or long-term memory every time listeners paid attention to the message and the existing knowledge is updated in logical and semiotic links. Interestingly, there are a number of factors possibly hindering the schema organization: the personal value system together with the frequency and current time of schema activation.

The terms, schema, has been in the interest of the psycholinguistic area, especially its influence on comprehension as seen in one empirical study by Charles Bartlett, the founder of cognitive psychology. Bartlett (1932, cited in Jordan, Carlile, &

Stack, 2008) defined a schema as a mental framework or organized pattern of thought about some aspect of the world such as class of people, events, situations or objects. That is, schemata is organized from previous experience into various slots such as cultural knowledge, person-related knowledge, layouts of location and a typical sequence of events so listeners need not to reinterpret the world every time.

Rost (2002) postulated that the schema facilitates listening comprehension regarding two main components: bottom-up and top-down processes. That is because the primarily ranged goal of listening skill is to understand and comprehend what the speakers actually say. Comprehension, in the broad sense, deals with the process of relating language to concepts stored listeners' memory and to reference in the real world. That means listeners put an effort to embrace what the language used with their background knowledge from past experience for their comprehension in order to have a clear concept in memory for every referent used by the speaker. However, there are two main consequent events possibly occurring in the cognitive process of comprehension: misunderstanding and non-understanding. The misunderstanding event results from the significant mismatch between the speaker's and the listener's schemas whereas the non-understanding one is caused by the inactivation of schema organization by listeners.

f) Background knowledge

Background knowledge or prior knowledge is viewed under the umbrella of the term, schema. Knowledge is stored and formulated when listeners have chance to explore culturally the world, understand various texts deeply in specific topics, and interpret the speaker's voice based on the knowledge of speakers, situations, and settings (Field, 2008). Then, it becomes background knowledge and is drawn out in order to interpret and understand the text into three levels (Field, 2013): (a) a propositional one related to literal interpretation or raw meaning, (b) a meaning representation required the complex interpretation, and (c) discourse representation by using overall environment. To put it this way, background knowledge becomes one significant part of schemata influencing listening comprehension. The thought process

is practically stimulated through working memory from short-term memory to long-term storage with consciousness under the interactive process consisting of the top-down and bottom-up processes.

The theoretical underpinning of background knowledge inquiry is associated with the schema theory. Schema theory is defined by Rumelhart (1980, cited in Tuan & Loan, 2010) as a theory about knowledge and a theory about how knowledge is presented or how their representation facilitates the use of knowledge. Rost (1994) claimed that schema theory can be used to elaborate how we understand complex discourse and how we use our knowledge to fill in missing parts of the discourse. Field (2013) concluded that it is “a knowledge structure containing all an individual knows about and associates with a particular concept” (p. 92).

Rost (1994) pinpointed that the development of language comprehension should be processed into two directions simultaneously. One direction is the development of comprehension of whole situations or events, and another one is the development of comprehension of individual sounds and then words and eventually phrases. That is because the speech utterances can be understood or interpreted into three levels of meaning: a propositional one related to literal interpretation or raw meaning, a meaning representation required the complex interpretation, and discourse representation by using overall environment so far (Field, 2013). The propositional level includes input decoding, lexical search and syntactic parsing. Listeners use or select particular knowledge to tackle their problem such phonological knowledge, lexical knowledge, and syntactic knowledge. The meaning representation involves the complex meaning including pragmatic, contextual, semantic and inferential information. In this case, listeners require pragmatic knowledge, external knowledge, and discourse representation. The last one is discourse representation allowing listeners to construct a larger-scale comprehension of a spoken text by selecting pieces of information related to the speaker's intention, integrating between new coming and existing information, self-monitoring the consistency of new information perceived, and building the hierarchical pattern of what has been said in complex or linear ways.

Definitions of background knowledge

Background knowledge has been defined in a variety of ways such as religious knowledge, technical knowledge, cultural knowledge, vocabulary knowledge, topic familiarity (Salahshuri, 2011). It can be sometimes implemented interchangeably with the term, prior knowledge, which refers to knowledge of topic, vocabulary, and text structure that is helpful or necessary to understand a text. Kujawa and Huske (1995) revealed that prior knowledge refers to the integration of the learner's preexisting attitudes, experience of events or everyday activities, and knowledge of content, topics, concepts and academic goals. Neisser (1976) defined prior knowledge as the skills and experience that the listeners have or know in advance. Marr and Gormley (1982) added that it is knowledge about events or persons for interpreting the world. That is, background knowledge about the world is organized cognitively in order to make inferences arriving at an acceptable interpretation of the utterance speakers intended (Rost, 1994). Anderson and Lynch (1988) postulated that schematic knowledge is one of information sources in comprehension. If such information is insufficient, this might impede comprehension.

Type of background knowledge

Background knowledge has been in concern on the previous studies relevant to both reading skills and listening skills in terms of the development of comprehension of whole situations or events, and of individual sounds, then words, and eventually phrases (Rost, 1994). Three main types of background knowledge assisting the reader to interpret various texts can be applied in listening skill as one another receptive skill in purposive ways as follows (Carrell, 1983):

1. Linguistic knowledge

It is the existing knowledge in vocabulary, grammar, or corresponding sounds, both alone and in clusters, and the ability to predict, through knowledge of syntax, the word or words that will follow. This is important for both readers and listeners in decoding or comprehending particular texts.

2. Formal knowledge

It refers to the knowledge of rhetorical patterns and the organizational forms in which the information in the text is written or spoken. Familiarity with text structures such as from fictions, academic articles, newspaper, and broadcasting influences the understanding and interpretation of the text.

3. Content knowledge

It refers to background knowledge of the topic being read or listened to from classrooms or elsewhere and familiarity of the topic from previous experience, or whether it is related to socio-cultural settings of the reader and listener. They comprise of topic familiarity, cultural knowledge and previous experience with a field.

In terms of content knowledge, Elliott and Wilson (2013) divided it into two main types: background knowledge and subject knowledge. Background knowledge resulting in cultural bias might impede the listening comprehension in terms of degree of cultural knowledge. Subject knowledge can be illustrated under the specific target language use domain, as commonly seen in terms of technical and non-technical subjects (Douglas, 2000).

Furthermore, Field (2008) provided categories of background knowledge into two main levels: linguistic level and contextual level both of which are important for understanding the auditory message. The linguistic level involves phonological, lexical, and syntactic knowledge while the contextual level includes world knowledge, topical knowledge, speaker knowledge, knowledge of the situation, and knowledge of the setting.

Goh (2014) additionally divided background knowledge into two types: knowledge of language and knowledge of discourse and language use, both of which facilitate listening comprehension.

- a) Knowledge of language refers to the knowledge of English language system learners possess such as phonological knowledge, grammatical knowledge, and vocabulary knowledge.
- b) Knowledge of discourse and language use refers to the way language used appropriately in a wide variety of places such as schools, shops, clinics and work places under the different kinds of discourse (e.g. lectures and conversational exchanges).

Research studies on background knowledge in listening comprehension

Listening has been considered the Cinderella of the major language skills: speaking, reading, and writing for a long time (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005). Some researchers assumed that listening skill was a parallel skill of reading because they both are the receptive skill. That means the findings of learning language strategies in reading skills can be applied in those in the listening skill as well. Park (2004) put an attempt to compare L2 listening and reading comprehension in terms of the roles of linguistic knowledge, background knowledge, and question types. The researcher argued that although the reading and listening skills have a lot of things in common, some of their conflicting results might be found. The participants were 168 Korean university students who had to take three types of tests: a linguistic knowledge test consisting of the multiple-choice vocabulary test and the true/false grammar test, and a background knowledge test under two familiar and two unfamiliar topics. The study found unlike reading skill, listeners find some phonological difficulties to decode these acoustic texts without a chance to go back and forth or without controlling to the speed of those texts. It also showed that linguistic knowledge on listening comprehension depends on the level of background knowledge rather than on reading comprehension.

To support the finding of the earlier study, Marzuki et al. (2013) examined the performance of participants with and without prior knowledge on reading and listening performance. There were 50 undergraduate students from Universiti Malaysia Sarawak divided into two groups: listening and reading groups. In the first stage, they were asked

to fill in the pre-selection questionnaire to assess background knowledge through a Likert scale from 1 to 4. Then, they took the test by writing what they remembered after either listening to or reading narrative inputs. The final stage took place two weeks later by taking the post-test with the same procedure. The finding showed that participants with schema recalled more information and performed better than those without schema, especially when dealing with the listening input.

Background knowledge and English proficiency levels

One major point that seemed to be intriguing for the empirical studies was the interaction between background knowledge and language proficiency levels on particular English skills, which was not in the main focus of the current study. The classification of the research participants with a wide range of English proficiency levels (e.g. advanced or upper-intermediate, intermediate, and low levels) was on the basis of the reliable criteria (e.g. the scores of some types of tests) researchers implemented. For example, the study of Hill and Liu (2012) aimed to investigate the interaction between background knowledge (e.g. a specific academic and cultural background knowledge) and language proficiency on the TOEFL iBT reading tasks through the differential item functioning (DIF). The test takers were divided into high and low proficiency groups based on their TOEFL iBT scores. The results found that background knowledge did not always work to the advantage of students either with or without background knowledge related to the content of the passage. There was a consistent direction of DIF on reading comprehension of both high and low proficiency levels. That means background knowledge could provide either advantages or disadvantages of both proficiency groups. It was likely that there was no interaction between test takers' background knowledge and English proficiency levels on reading comprehension of the TOEFL iBT test. Similarly, in the Thai context, Jaturapitakkul (2007) examined the interaction effect between language ability and engineering background knowledge on ESP reading comprehension. Her test takers were classified into two groups: high and low language ability based on the English placement test of her university. According to the score result of the developed Engineering-English Reading Test, there was no significant interaction effect between English proficiency

levels and engineering background knowledge on ESP reading ability. However, there was a significant difference on the reading comprehension scores between students with and without engineering background knowledge.

When turning to the emphasis of listening skill under the same issue, Huang and Chen (2015) found that background knowledge facilitated both Taiwanese high and low EFL learners' comprehension of the particular listening texts. Two groups of participants were classified by the scores on the TOEIC English Proficiency Test were More speaking, both high and low EFL learners with commercial background knowledge gained the high score on commercial-related topics than both of those with technology background. When focusing on background knowledge and language proficiency level, the lower proficiency level learners benefited more from background knowledge than the higher ones. Interestingly, another study of Pashayi and Mahmoudi (2017) put an emphasis on the effects of cultural knowledge and language proficiency on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. Their participants were divided into two groups: high and low by the Oxford Placement Test. Each group was assigned to listen to two audio files in class: one about mosques and another one about cathedrals. Their findings showed that topic familiarity cannot compensate for the lack of language proficiency, especially low level learners whereas language proficiency, especially high level learners can compensate for the lack of topic familiarity in EFL listening. Instead of focusing only prior knowledge, Chiang and Dunkel (1992) added one more main variable, speech modification. They assumed that it might influence listening comprehension of Chinese undergraduate students in both high and low English proficiency levels. The lecture listening texts were modified in forms of paraphrasing and repetition under the familiar and unfamiliar topics. The multiple-choice test items consisted of the passage-dependent and passage-independent items equally. The study found that there was significant interaction between speech modification and listening proficiency especially in the high level. Additionally, there was significant interaction between prior knowledge and test types, especially passage-independent items on familiar topic. In general, they found that Chinese EFL listeners gained the higher score in the post-lecture comprehension test including the familiar-topic passage but not the unfamiliar-topic passage.

With the different focus, Saengsri (2011) put an attempt to investigate the effect of three types of listening supports: question preview, vocabulary preview, and repeated input on an English listening proficiency test. 180 participants are the first year university students who were divided into six groups. The first three groups were in the high English proficiency level and each group was asked to take one of three types of tests: question preview, vocabulary preview and repeated input (play the recording twice). Other three groups were in the low English proficiency level and each was asked to take the same test as previous groups did. The researcher revealed that the most effective type of listening supports was the repeated input but with the small effect size. The result showed that there were not significant relationship between English ability levels and the other two types of listening supports. Besides this, Jafari and Hashim (2012) were interested in the experiment on using two types of advance organizers: key sentences and key vocabulary on the improvement of listening comprehension of EFL learners who have higher and lower listener proficiency level. The results showed that learners who received the advance organizers improve their listening skill more than learners who did not but there was no relationship between the level of listening proficiency and the use of advance organizers.

As noticed, most empirical studies were likely to compare the effects of background knowledge on particular English skills between high and low English proficiency level learners whereas the intermediate English proficiency level learners were likely to be implicitly included in the studies mainly focusing on the effects of background knowledge familiarity and unfamiliarity on listening skill regardless of language proficiency level. The following are the examples of the previous studies focusing on two main issues of background knowledge: a) topic familiarity and b) lexical familiarity, which might or might not affect listeners who had the similar English proficiency level.

a) Background knowledge on topic familiarity

Schmidt-Rinehart (1994) put emphasis on the effects of topic familiarity on second language listening comprehension with university students in three Spanish

courses. The questionnaire and immediate recall protocols were the main instruments to investigate the importance of background knowledge. The results showed that background knowledge in the form of topic familiarity emerges as a powerful factor in facilitating listening comprehension and there was a consistent increase in comprehension scores across the three Spanish courses. Likewise, one research question of Leeser (2004) was whether topic familiarity affected comprehension and the processing of grammatical form by students who enrolled Spanish courses. The answer went to the same trend as the previous one that students who were familiar with topics received significantly higher ratings than those who were not.

Salahshuri (2011) also was interested in the role of background knowledge in forms of topic familiarity in foreign language listening comprehension done by university students in Najafabad Azad University. The immediate recall protocol, a listening test, and pre-and post-questionnaire are employed as the main research instruments. The result revealed that participants received the higher scores on the familiar topic but the familiarity did not vary in terms of the course level. Under the aspect of specific academic field, background knowledge is one critical element to achieve their academic goal. Cheung and Wong (2011) examined the effect of previous subject knowledge on student performance in the subject of Principles of Accounts in the Hong-Kong advanced-level examination inform of case study. Their results agreed with the assumption that students with previous subject knowledge in this course can attain better grades in their Hong Kong A-level examination than those who do not.

In listening lessons, three activities teachers currently use to activate learners' background knowledge consist of pre-listening, during-listening, and post-listening activities (Hu, 2012). These activities have potential to enhance learners to overcome some difficulties they encounter in their listening skill. Pre-listening stage starts with introducing vocabularies and topic to activate their schemata balance between bottom-up and top-down processing, called interactive processing. During-listening activity places students in the training program to practically use the listening strategies. The post-listening stage helps students checking the answer to

comprehension questions either by themselves, by peer or by teacher. The findings revealed that these three stages can be replaced the traditional listening tasks and materials focusing only one stage which learners listen to a listening passage together with answering comprehension questions.

However, the study of Sarandi (2010) showed the opposite finding about topic or content familiarity on listening comprehension. It is found that students who received some general information about the content of the lectures before taking a post-listening test did not gain higher scores than students who did not receive it. That is because the listening questions required more attention on specific details.

b) Background knowledge on lexical familiarity

Chang (2007) conducted the experiment of the vocabulary preparation in three periods of time: a week, one day, and 30 minutes before taking a listening test and vocabulary test. 117 Taiwanese college students were assigned to perform their ability on two test sets: the vocabulary test and the listening test under three different amount of preparation time. The result showed that the longer the preparation time, the more confident and the higher the scores they achieved, especially in the vocabulary test. However, it revealed that listening comprehension did not rely on the familiarity and the amount of time test-takers spent on the vocabulary list, nor did the confidence on the prepared vocabularies affect scores on the listening comprehension.

Similarly, another study conducted by Mehrpour and Rahimi (2010) put an interest on the vocabulary in forms of a glossary list with meaning but it was distributed during the process of reading and listening comprehension to university Iranian learners. The participants were divided into two groups: a treatment group and a control group. The former was given a glossary with meaning when taking reading and listening test whereas the latter took two tests without a glossary. The findings indicated that regarding the nature of two skills, students taking the reading test gained more benefit on the glossary set than those on the listening test. That is because during taking the reading test, students can manage their time by returning to the

glossary for better understanding but this management is difficult for listeners. As noticed, both empirical studies provided the similar conclusion in terms of no effect of vocabulary training on listening comprehension.

Kobeleva (2012) examined the impact of unfamiliar proper name on English as a second language learners' listening comprehension. Three main instruments: a listening test, a proper name test, and task difficulty rating were implemented with 110 intermediate to advanced ESL learners from four New Zealand institutions. The listening test included short news stories under two conditions: Names Known which had been taught in class and Names Unknown which was not mentioned in class and under three types of test format: true-false-don't know statement, open-ended questions, and multiple choice questions. It was found that the Name Known group performed significantly better than the Name Unknown groups on two measures: true-false-don't know statement and open-ended questions but not on multiple choice questions focusing macro questions like understanding the gist of the text. The researcher recommended that teachers be flexible in selecting the tasks, vocabularies, and test format when setting up listening exercises based on the purpose of assessment.

As noticed, the findings on the effect of background knowledge on listening comprehension have not presented in the consistent way. Nevertheless, Van Engen and Peelle (2014) claimed that good listeners are heavily reliant upon the compensatory executive resources: working memory, attention, and semantic integration or even background knowledge to help them comprehend what have been heard when sometimes they are hindered by the lack of linguistic knowledge like unfamiliar accents (the mismatch between incoming signals and stored representations). It is also assumed that the technique to draw background knowledge can help reduce listeners' cognitive load and feel comfortable to the listening tasks. This pre-task activity was also expected to increase consciousness and confidence in comprehending the listening text. Besides this, some researchers found that the following listening supports can help listeners activate background knowledge to be

more comprehensible to the spoken texts: looking at pictures, reading through a list of question items, completing a chart or table, and previewing language from informal talk and class discussion (Tuan & Loan, 2010).

2.1.5 An Interactive Process Model

Listening comprehension is the result of an interactive process dealing with three main processes: bottom-up, top-down and interactive processes to making plausible interpretation of what have been said (Buck, 2001; Field, 2013; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005).

Bottom-up process

Listeners build understanding of the conveyed messages by starting with developing the acoustic input to phonemes, the smallest sound segment and to phonological strings. Then, these are combined into individual words, which are integrated into phrases, clauses, and sentences under the grammatical structure and the semantic content. Finally, listeners create and relate the idea and concept to reach the stage of understanding and interpreting the literal meaning of the auditory messages. As noticed, the comprehension of the messages might not be completed because of no reference to the speaker, hearer, or wider context.

Under the similar process, the term, lower-level listening process is widely used under the notion of psycholinguistic contexts when acoustic cues are being encoded into language (Field, 2013). Three main elements of knowledge: phonological, lexical, and syntactic knowledge are being operationalized when listeners received the acoustic message. To illustrate, when listeners have heard the message, their phonological knowledge is activated in forms of decoding phoneme, identifying syllable levels, and analyzing suprasegmental information. Then the phonological string is organized by phonological match, segmentation cues, word frequency, and spreading activation. Finally the lexical string is developed at the level of syntax (e.g. syntactic parsing, word sense narrowed, and intonation) in order to set word meanings

in the sense of between delivered information and derived linguistic forms. As the result, listeners receive an abstract proposition.

Top-down process

The top-down process emphasizes developing the context-independent input by using of non-linguistic knowledge such as content knowledge, the communicative topic, and experienced situations in interpreting a text. In this process, listeners are responsible for drawing out supplementary information in terms of speaker intentions, context, inference, and reference that enriches the utterance interpretation. This interpretation go beyond the linguistic forms by taking account of context, speaker knowledge, knowledge of situation, world knowledge, or even recall of what has been said so far.

To put it another way, after listeners cope with the decoding operation into the literal meaning of what the speaker has said, they have to go into the higher-level listening process. It is reliant upon their knowledge of the world or upon their recall to reach the intention of the speakers' message. Listeners might make inferences from speaker intentions and context for important decisions to respond with communicators. This operation will be referred to as a meaning building or mental model. Two main goals of meaning-building process used by both L1 and L2 listeners are as follows:

- a) It aims to make meaning enrichment. The speaker knowledge and the world knowledge such as topic knowledge, cultural knowledge should be added when listeners analyze the raw message from the words that have been said.
- b) It also allows listeners to handle information. That is, listeners should take account of the importance of incoming pieces of information and the relationship among previous pieces of information, the intentions of the speakers, and an incoming piece of information.

As noticed, the latter resemble the term, discourse representation (Field, 2013), referring to the listener's recall of what has occurred. This allows listeners to

understand the whole of the lectures, conversations, broadcast, or films. There are four main processes for listeners to construct a large-scale comprehension of a listening text. Firstly, listeners should select and judge the new pieces of information related to the discourse as a whole or the goals of the speaker. In the point, listeners are able to make decision to store, delete, or retain this piece of information in their memory. Secondly, listeners have to integrate their existing knowledge and a new piece of information to develop the discourse representation. Then, listeners should monitor and compare the new information with the decayed information in terms of accuracy and consistency. At last, listeners have to hierarchically structure their knowledge building in order to make important judgment about the information that they just obtained and related to what they had experienced before. Field (2008, 2013) emphasized that both bottom-up and top-down processes are not necessarily sequential in linear fashion.

Interactive model

In the interactive model, the process of decoding and meaning building is not able to be independently separated but they should be interdependently employed during listening. For example, when listeners found some difficulty with the input of non-native speakers providing unfamiliar accents, they need some assistance from the stored background knowledge for understanding. Decoding processes illustrating the way listeners decode the acoustic input can be placed in the model of information processing. When listeners hear the spoken text, they match with the small unit of sounds or phonemes of the target language. Then these phonemes are recognized into syllable structure, and matched to the sequences of sounds or words. These words fall into a chunk of language which is recognized into syntactic patterns enhanced by intonation. In some cases, listeners might use two or more levels at the same time to decode what speakers intend to convey.

Additionally, with the reference to Stanovich Interactive Compensatory Hypothesis, Field (2008) pointed out that the proportion of using these two processes is neither fixed nor in a linear fashion, depending upon the confidence of listeners to

the spoken input. When listeners have the high level of confidence with the spoken texts, they decrease the level of using top-down information. To illustrate, when listeners are familiar with some expressions like ‘Just a moment’, they might overrule the linear decoding process. Conversely, if they have unfamiliarity with the spoken message, they will rely more heavily on external information such as world knowledge, situational knowledge or speaker knowledge.



Section 2.2: Overview of listening assessment

2.2.1 History of language testing

In the issue on a brief history of language testing proposed by Sullivan (2012), testing was commenced in the ancient Chinese time about 1,500 years ago and designed to recruit the imperial officials and military officers from educated people. The format and content of the test was similar every time the testing date was set up. This encouraged a cultural uniformity in people's thinking on the importance of education to the empire. Then, the idea of testing came to Europe in the 16th and 17th centuries and began to spread into the wider community in the late 18th century. Testing became a bigger issue in Britain in around 20th century when people from colonies want to enter the British education system. The set of the test, called the Cambridge Proficiency Examination (CPE), included the measurement of listening ability in forms of phonetics. The dictation section was retained later since 1934 together with sustaining the test content central and validity. The test was constructed by the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate based on the philosophy of language learning developed by Henry Sweet in 1899 who emphasized language use rather than language knowledge.

Birjandi, Bagheridoust, and Mossalanejad (2006) illustrated the development of language testing into three periods of time: traditional, scientific, and communicative time. Firstly, in the traditional time, the method of testing is like the method of teaching: the grammar-translation method. Composition and translation tests were common and the teachers' attitudes were influential on the scoring system, which seemed subjective. Beside this, the 1913 CPE test consisted of English phonetics paper, dictation section, and interactive conversation with an examiner together with a reading aloud task (Taylor & Geranpayeh, 2011). Next, in the scientific time, the scoring system of the test is more objective by establishing the criteria. The language skills were measured separately in the discrete-point test by using the multiple-choice format proposed by Kelly in 1915. It can be seen clearly in the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), designed by Educational Testing Service in 1964. It aims to measure

non-native English speakers' English proficiency test for academic placement in US educational institutions. TOEFL included four main skills: listening, reading, vocabularies, and grammatical structure. The listening section organized in the first part of the test set consisted mainly of short monologue extracts and was delivered by tape recordings. It was the paper-and-pencil based test in the form of the objectively-scored, selected response type for quick and reliable marking. In the communicative time, language tests were placed heavily on content rather than form. The test developers in this era put a lot of effort to design the language proficiency tests assessing communicative language ability to keep pace with current language teaching approaches such as communicative language teaching, task-based language teaching, and content-based instruction. New testing methods reflected a concept of authenticity, with language testers attempts to create test tasks approximating to the 'reality' of non-test language use or real-life performance (Taylor & Geranpayeh, 2011, p.90). This can be explicitly explored in the current standardized English proficiency tests such as the International English Language Testing Service (IELTS) introduced in 1989 with its integrated and contextualized approach to assess test-takers' language skills needed for university study, the release of TOEFL new revision, internet-based TOEFL in 2005 and the creation of new Pearson Test of Academic English introduced in 2009.

2.2.2 The development of assessing listening

Flowerdew and Miller (2012) with the Buck's reference mentioned the development of the listening assessment into three stages: the discrete-point, integrative, and communicative approach. Firstly, the features of assessing listening under the discrete-point approach were independent and isolated from other language skills. This was influenced by behaviorism and special attention to contrastive analysis. The common types of the tests were phonemic discrimination by asking test-takers to identify differences between phonemes, paraphrase recognition by reformulating what was heard, and response evaluation by responding appropriately to what was heard. Secondly, the integrative approach was established opposite of the former approach

by emphasizing the listening process rather than product. More than one language skill is required in one test tasks at the same time such as grammatical and lexical competencies or ability to listen and then response in writing. The example of test features is gap-filling exercises, dictation, sentence repetition activities; statement evaluation; and translation. As noticed, two mentioned approaches were heavily reliant on the bottom-up information. The third stage is the communicative approach. Listeners have to understand the whole spoken text and do something with the information they have comprehended. It needs the correspondence between language test performance and language use. The features of the test tasks are authentic and genuine but difficult to prepare because the contexts for the tasks are widely varied. It focuses on communicative performance rather than linguistic accuracy. Test-takers have more than one option to react to a situation but this cannot be interpreted their performance for another communicative situation.

Under the communicative approach, Brown (2004) proposed ‘performance-based’ assessment, another approach essential for classroom testing, promoting student-centered concept. The features of the performance-based assessment of language are open-ended, integrated, productive and interactive with less emphasis on separate items in paper-and-pencil selective response tests. To respond with the development of communicative language teaching (CLT), the phrase, communicative language testing is introduced with the aim to discover what test-takers can use language rather than how much linguistic knowledge they know (Morrow, 2012). Inevitably, the language performance of test-takers are measured in forms of the combination between listening and writing or/and speaking, and integration between reading and writing. In this point, there were some interesting arguments among language testing scholars in both positive and negative ways. For example, the integrated skills tasks can predetermine the actual performance of the test-takers which is close to the real life situation whereas it is hard to ensure the validity and reliability of the test (Morrow, 2012).

2.2.3 Types of listening test

A listening test can be transformed into proficiency and placement tests or an achievement and diagnostic tests dependent upon the purpose of testing (Flowerdew & Miller, 2012).

- a) The proficiency and placement tests aim to discover how much students know about the language in general and to determine the most appropriate place or level for students who would like to continue their study. The listening tests are constructed in a number of different items with degrees of difficulty. The score of individuals is compared with the scores of other learners similar to the norm-referenced test.
- b) The purposes of designing achievement and diagnostic tests are different. A listening test in forms of an achievement test aims to measure what the learners know and how much learning has been achieved after a course of instruction whereas that in forms of a diagnostic test is similar to a needs analysis with the aim to discover what weaknesses students have along the process of listening proficiency. Both of these tests are categorized in the criterion-referenced test, having the certain standard for feedback or grade on the particular language course.

2.2.4 Construct of the listening achievement test

Before assessing listening, the teachers or assessors must firstly differentiate between general listening and academic listening. Buck (2001) revealed that in real time or general listening, listeners paid attention to messages speakers convey at a rapid speed in the time limitation of speech preparation. Sometimes, it is called unplanned discourse. On the other hand, in academic listening, listeners paid attention to lectures teachers convey in carefully planned and polished speech at the slower speed rate (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005). It is called planned discourse.

Next, the teachers have to analyze and understand the process of listening. Brown (2004) illustrated the process flowing through the listeners' brain as follows:

- a) Listeners recognize speech sounds and temporarily store them in short-term memory;
- b) Listeners simultaneously determine the type of speech event (monologue, interpersonal dialogue, or transactional (non-participatory) dialogue) that is being processed and analyze who the speaker is, where it takes place, what the purpose is and what the content of the message is;
- c) Listeners attempts to interpret the message by using their bottom-up and top-down processes and a literal and intended meaning to the utterance;
- d) Listeners usually select what main content of the message and keep it in the long-term memory.

After the teachers and test developers understand the process of listening, they are able to construct the objective of listening assessment relevant the course syllabus as follows:

- a) Test-takers should be able to comprehend surface structure elements such as phonemes, words, intonation, or a grammatical category;
- b) Test-takers should be able to understand pragmatic context;
- c) Test-takers should be able to determine meaning of acoustic inputs;
- d) Test-takers should be able to develop the gist, a global understanding.

When constructing the English listening test, Richards (1983, cited in Brown, 2004) proposed that test designers should divide the aforementioned objectives of the listening skill based on the particular course into two key parts: macro- and micro-skills of listening. The difference of these two skills is microskills focuses on bottom-up information starting from small linguistic units to the chunks of language whereas macroskills emphasize top-down process how test-takers handle the information from the text.

Besides this, Buck (2001) proposed a framework for describing listening ability adapted from Bachman and Palmer (1996) 's language knowledge (e.g. organizational and pragmatic knowledge) and Purpura's work on strategic knowledge. The framework

has been widely accepted among language testers because of the integration of two main terms: language competence and strategic competence. In language competence, there are four main components listeners should involve: grammatical knowledge, discourse knowledge, pragmatic knowledge and sociolinguistic knowledge. The focus of grammatical knowledge is on listeners' ability to understand short utterance including phonology, stress, intonation, spoken vocabulary and spoken syntax on a literal semantic level. The discourse knowledge put the stress on listeners' ability to understand longer utterance by using their knowledge of discourse features such as rhetorical schemata and story grammars. The pragmatic knowledge tends to analyze listeners' ability to understand longer text including indirect speech acts and pragmatic implication. The final one, sociolinguistic knowledge focuses on listeners' ability to interpret utterances including slang, idiomatic expressions, dialects, levels of formality and registers under the context of situation or particular cultural settings. Another main term of the framework is strategic competence consisting of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. There are three main processes under cognitive strategies: comprehension processes, storing and memory processes, and retrieval processes. In metacognitive strategies, listeners should manage their conscious mental activities over the cognitive strategies by four ways: assessing the situation, monitoring, self-evaluating, and self-testing.

Finally, Buck (2001) suggested that to effectively create the listening achievement test, the construct of the listening test must derive from the listening activities, materials or texts given in the class relevant to the description of the particular course. Under this circumstance, teachers have two alternatives to select the resources for the listening test: a) sampling the course content, and b) replicating the course content (Buck, 2001). The first choice shows the strength of validity because the listening content is directly chosen from the course material with the change of test types but it might result in construct-irrelevant variance. That is, students might remember the content from the class without listening to the passage. Another choice is to create the relevant listening content to the course by either looking through the old text or related sources from the library. In order to refine the achievement test in the high

standard, the improvement should be activated over time by analyzing the item difficulty and adding a few new items in the test.

2.2.5 Factors influencing listening test performance

Buck (2001) revealed that listening comprehension is an active process of constructing meaning which can be influenced by several variables such as the selection of response formats, characteristics of spoken texts, and personal factors of listeners themselves.

2.2.5.1 Selection of response formats for a listening test

Flowerdew and Miller (2012) suggested that the selection of tests compatible with the skills they test should be reliant on three main approaches to language testing: discrete-point, integrative, and communicative approaches. The question whether it is only the listening skill the test measures under appropriate contexts or not should be seriously in the test designer's awareness based on the TLU domain. Keep in mind there are some intervention of some different amount of other language skills in one particular test, especially a listening comprehension test. This might result in two major threats of construct validity: construct under-representation and construct-irrelevant variance (Wagner, 2014). The following are the response formats of the listening test.

(a) Picture-cued items

In forms of picture-cued items, test-takers are assigned to listen to the description and choose the most appropriate picture being described. This format focuses purely on measuring listening proficiency.

(b) Multiple-choice formats

In forms of multiple-choice statements, test-takers listen to a statement (e.g. recognizing phonological and morphological elements, or paraphrasing), a dialogue (e.g. recognizing wh-questions, or paraphrasing) or a lecture (e.g. identifying main ideas, supporting ideas) and then choose the best answers from multiple-choice statements. This format of the listening test requires test-takers' two key language skills: listening and reading.

(c) Summary tasks

In forms of summary tasks, test-takers must listen to a story, monologue, or conversation and then select the most appropriate words or phrases they heard to complete the written text. This format of the listening test might be intervened by the reading comprehension skills (Buck, 2003; Brown, 2004).

(d) Chart-filling tasks

Another form is chart-filling tasks. Test-takers are assigned to listen to some types of the oral text and write words or phrases in the charts, schedules or particular forms related to the listening text. During or after listening, they need to complete the charts, the schedule, or other written forms. The language skills required in these formats are listening, reading and writing.

(e) Interactive formats

Test-takers are asked to interact and appropriately respond something during listening to a conversation. This task is grouped as the two-way interaction between the test-takers and an examiner or among test-takers themselves. That is, there are two main language skills mainly required: listening and speaking.

(f) Writing formats

There are several alternatives of writing formats test designers should be taken into consideration regarding the purpose of the test. To illustrate, one format is the summary of the story. Test-takers listen to the story and then summarize what they have heard in forms of essays or other given forms. Another form is the dictation. Test-takers listen to a 50 or 100 word passage at normal speed around three times and then they have to write down what they have just heard. Test-takers have to employ two main language skills in these formats: listening and writing.

(g) Question-answering formats

Test-takers listen to some types of the oral text and then read questions related to the listening text. During or after listening, they need to write answers responding to the specific questions. The language skills required in these formats are listening, reading and writing.

2.2.5.2 Characteristic of spoken texts

The characteristics of spoken texts employed in the listening test should be taken into account such as the speech modification, accent, speech rate, and discourse structure (Buck, 2001; Wong, 2012).

(a) Speech modification

Chiang and Dunkel (1992) found that speech modification facilitates the comprehension of spoken text by simplifying linguistic form involving an alteration in the syntax (e.g. using simple sentences rather complex ones) and/or by adapting the lexis of the message to suit particular communicators.

According to Krashen (2009)'s input hypothesis in the first language acquisition, mothers tend to modify their speech to their young children by using 'caretaker speech' in the communicative interactions. It was believed that the caretaker speech make more comprehensible to spoken texts in order to accommodate their children for acquiring languages from stage i to stage $i+1$. In the acquisition of second language, Krashen proposed three types of modified inputs: foreigner-talk, teacher-talk, and interlanguage talk. When talking to interlocutors who are non-native English speakers, native speakers of English often adjust or modify their speech for them to be more comprehensible and continue to communicate as foreigner-talk. In the classroom, teachers also make their lecture less complicated for their students who speak different languages. This is teacher-talk, similar to foreigner-talk. Besides this, interlanguage talk aims to help other second language acquirers understand each other's intended speech.

(b) Speech rate

Speech rate is also assumed to be one of facilitated or impeded tools to understand the spoken text. Based on Tauroza and Allison's study, Buck (2001) posited that in radio monologues, speakers conveyed the message with 160 words per minute (wpm) and 250 syllables per minute (spm) or 1.6 syllables per seconds (spc) whereas in the lecture to non-native English audience, a message flowed with the speed rate of 140 wpm and 190 spm or 1.4 spc. In general conversation, a message was transferred with 210 wpm and 260 spm or 1.3 spc. The speed rate in interviews is about 190 wpm with 250 spm or 1.3 spc.

(c) Discourse structure

One purpose of the listening test in classrooms is to determine how well students learnt and understood the spoken texts under various situations based on the course syllabus. Listening to a lecture and listening to information about university life are the examples of listening tasks under the academic setting to measure whether students are ready for further study. A lecture refers to a talk given by a subject expert, known as a lecturer, on a general overview of a topic or a particular topic in a classroom (Aish & Tomlinson, 2013). Lecturers commonly prepare information in forms of ideas, argument, process or description in a logical order. The structure of lectures can guide students what is going to come next and the direction of an argument or presentation would be like. A transcript of a typical lecture provides a short introduction outlined what is in the lecture. Wong (2012) argued that the main distractor under this context is the way speakers present the spoken text which might be in unorganized, difficult-to-follow, or loosely structured manner.

(d) Accent

Buck (2001) stated that everyone has an accent but the speech accent varies under the geographical region. This factor might provide positive and negative impact for listeners to interpret the meaning of the text. In case of the English language, its dispersion around the world is clearly illustrated by Braj Kachru in the term of 'World Englishes' into three main concentric circles: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle. Jenkins (2006b) suggested the spread of English can be discussed based on the diverse group of users: English as Native Language (ENL), English as a Second Language (ESL), and English as Foreign Language (EFL). To illustrate, English as a Native Language is the language spoken by people who were born in the countries where English historically is a mother tongue such as the UK, USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. The variety of English accents from these countries is categorized in the Inner Circle. Secondly, English as a Second Language refers to the language spoken officially by people who were born in the countries where were historically colonized by the British and their first language have been used as well such as India, Bangladesh, Nigeria and Singapore. The variety of English accents from these countries is grouped in the Outer Circle. Lastly, English as a foreign language is the language

spoken as the medium of communication with other non-native speakers without the model of English in the countries where English is historically learnt such as Japan, Thailand, and China. The variety of English accented speech from these countries is included in the Expanding circle.

The following are the examples of four English accented speech features (e.g. General American English, Indian English, Chinese English and Thai English) representing Kachru's three main concentric circles of World Englishes: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle, respectively.

1) Features of Inner Circle English accents: British English and General American English

Based on the study of Yang (2012), the contrastive analysis under the concept of English as the international lingua franca was conducted with the aim to raise students' awareness of different varieties of accents: British English (BE) or Received Pronunciation (RP) and General American English (GAE). The followings are the findings of the study about some key different features between British English (BE) and General American English (GAE) found in regular practice not sporadically:

a) /r/, non-rhotic accent

The BE speaker in the study did not pronounce the syllable-final retroflex while GAE did as illustrated in such words as *there*, *year*, *share* or *letter*.

b) Insertion of /j/ between a coronal and /u/

The BE speaker pronounce /ju/ for the nuclei in such words as *news*, *students*, *tube*, *nude*, *Tuesday* and *dew* whereas GAE only utters the vowel /u/.

c) /æ/, low front vowel shift

The vowel /æ/ is change by BE into the back vowel /ɑ/ or /a/ or /ɐ/ in such words as *Africa*, *magazine*, *magic*, *bath* and *bachelor*.

d) /ɑ/, low back vowel shift

The vowel /ɑ/ is uttered by BE as round counterpart /ɔ/, as shown in *on*, *job*, *ostrich*, and *hot*.

e) /aɪ/ and /oʊ/, diphthong shifts

Diphthong shifts /aɪ / and /oʊ/ are regularly changed by BE into /ʌɪ/, and into /əʊ/, respectively.

f) /i/, /a/, /u/, and /ɔ/, the vowels

BE make these vowel sound longer as /i:/, /a:/, /u:/, and /ɔ:/ as illustrated in the words, *fleece*, *palm*, *goose*, and *thought*, respectively.

2) Features of the Outer Circle English accents: Indian English

Besides this, another purpose of Yang's study is to help students notice, identify, and analyze the distinct accents between Indian English (IE) and GAE/ RP. The following is the summary of common IE sound features when comparatively analyzing with native English accents:

- a) An r-less accent is influenced by a typical BE accent
- b) The syllable-final r-sound is usually pronounced as schwa in such words as *far*, *remember*, *power*, *bigger*, and *were*. As noticed, the word-final /r/ is also uttered clearly when followed by a word beginning with a vowel in such phrases as *the car is coming*, *the player insisted on his principle*, *power over them and all over India*.
- c) The vowel /æ/ is shifted to /ɛ/, as in *had*, *plan*, *animals*, and *back*.
- d) The lax epsilon /ɛ/ is pronounced as its tense counterpart /e/, as in *remember*, *elephant*, and *them*.
- e) No aspiration of voiceless stops is uttered in such words as *power* and *tower*.
- f) The interdental fricatives are changed into dental stops such as *with*, *them*, *something*, *those*, and *think*.
- g) The tone usually falls at the last word of the non-final sentences as shown below
 - *As far as I can remember (a falling tone), I've always lived with elephants; and*
 - *Then, one day (a falling tone), I discovered I had power over them.*

3) Features of the Expanding Circle English accents: Chinese English and Thai English

3.1) Chinese English

Zhang and Yin (2009) placed an emphasis on some problematic pronunciation produced by English learners in China together with key factors: age, attitude, and insufficient knowledge of phonology and phonetics system of the English language. The following is the summary of Chinese-English accent features when comparing to the English language.

a) /ai/ and /e/, the vowels

When pronouncing the word, *that*, Chinese learners utter the vowels like /ai/ or /e/ instead of /æ / in English. That is because there are no vowels like /æ/, /au/, and /ɛə/ in Chinese.

b) /s/ and /z/, the consonants

The consonants like /s/ or /z/ of Chinese are the substitution of an English consonant /ð/. No consonants like /ð/ and /θ/ appear in Chinese.

Furthermore, Rogers and Dolby (2005) also summarized the phonemic differences inventory of native Mandarin speakers when producing the consonants and vowels of American English. It can be illustrated into two sets: consonant and vowel differences in forms of the tables.

a) Consonant differences

Table 1 illustrated the Mandarin-English pronunciation of consonants in three main positions: beginning, middle, and final:

Table 1

The Mandarin-English pronunciation of consonants

Word-initial	Word-medial	Word-final
Place of articulation		
/d/ pronounced as /b/	/d/ pronounced as /b/	d/ pronounced as /b/
/θ/ pronounced as /s/	/ʌ/ pronounced as /w/	/θ/ pronounced as /s/
/ð/ pronounced as /s/		/ð/ pronounced as /s/, /z/ /m/ pronounced as /n/ /n/ pronounced as /m/, /ŋ/
Manner of articulation		/ŋ/ pronounced as /n/

/p/ pronounced as /f/	/p/ pronounced as /f/	
/v/ pronounced as /w/		/p/ pronounced as /f/ /v/ pronounced as /b/

Voicing

/b/ pronounced as /p/	/p/ pronounced as /b/	/b/ pronounced as /p/
/p/ pronounced as /b/		/p/ pronounced as /b/
/d/ pronounced as /t/		/d/ pronounced as /t/
/t/ pronounced as /d/		/t/ pronounced as /d/
/g/ pronounced as /k/	/k/ pronounced as /g/	/g/ pronounced as /k/
/k/ pronounced as /g/		/k/ pronounced as /g/
		/z/ pronounced as /s/

b) Vowel differences

Table 2 illustrated the Mandarin-English pronunciation of vowels in three basic levels: height, backness, and diphthong.

Table 2

The Mandarin-English pronunciation of vowels

Height	Backness	Diphthong
/U/ pronounced as /oʊ/	/ɜ/ pronounced as /ɔ/	/aɪ/ pronounced as /ɑ/
/ʊ/ pronounced as /ɑ/	/ʌ/ pronounced as /oʊ/	/aɪ/ pronounced as /ɛ/
/ɛ/ pronounced as /æ/		/aʊ/ pronounced as /ɑ/
/æ/ pronounced as /ɛ/		/ɑ/ pronounced as /aʊ/
/ʌ/ pronounced as /ɑ/		
/aʊ/ pronounced as /oʊ/		
/ɑ/ pronounced as /U/		
/ɑ/ pronounced as /oʊ/		

3.2) Thai English

Likitrattanaporn (2014) reviewed the key features of Thai-English accent from a contrastive analysis of segmental consonant phonemes as follows:

1. Some English phonemes like /g/ /v/ /θ/ /ð/ /z/ /dʒ/ /ʃ/ /ʒ/ and /r/ are not in the Thai language. Thus, these lead some difficulties in English pronunciation for Thai as the following illustrations:

a) /r/

The Thai /r/ is a trill or flap, not equivalent with the English retroflex /r/.

b) /θ/ and /ð/

Thai phoneme system does not contain articulations like the interdental sound: /θ/ and /ð/ in English.

c) /v/, /z/, /dʒ /, and /ʒ/

Thais usually pronounce these English voiced sounds with voiceless sounds illustrated as *zoo* uttered as *sue*, and *van* uttered as *wan*

d) /l/ in the final sound

Thais pronounce the final sound of the word, *ball* with /n/

e) /tʃ/ and /ʃ/ in the final sound

Thais pronounce the final sound of the word, *watch* as the word, *wash*.

f) /s/ and /z/ in the final sound

Thais utter the final sound of the word, *rice* as the word, *rise*.

g) /d/ in English phonological grammar

Thai did not recognize that the words ending with /d/ can be pronounced as /t/ or /id/ with the particular condition.

h) /sh/ and /ch/

Thais pronounce /sh/ and /ch/ in the same way such as the words, *ship* and *chip* and the words, *sheep* and *cheap*

2. Thai is a tonal language whereas English is an intonation language.

When Thai people speak English, they commonly have difficulty with English supra-segmental phonemes including word stress and sentence intonation.

Jenkins (2006a) concluded some problematic issues under the aforementioned classification of English dispersion. First, it is difficult to identify what the first, second, or even third language is in case that people were grown up in bilingual and multilingual countries where each language is selected to fulfil particular social functions. Another problem is the model of World Englishes cannot define speakers in

terms of the English proficiency level. In other words, it doesn't mean that all native English speakers are in the high level of vocabulary and grammatical competence, or all non-native English speakers are in the low level of using English.

The issues on English accented speech and the listening comprehension tests

In the English classroom, most teaching materials are in either British or American English versions. ÇEKIÇ (2009) would like to find out whether or not speakers' accents used in educational materials make any differences in improving the listening skill of Turkish elementary EFL learners. 40 students were divided into two groups: an American English class and a British English class. Both classes took pre-tests in American and British versions. Then the American class studied the Longman English Interactive Online Level 2 for 20 hours while the British class studied the same online material in British version for the same amount of time. After that both classes took the post-test in both types of English versions. The researcher concluded that Turkish learners improve their learning skills more when using materials in American English version.

Nowadays it is not just the understanding of standard British or American spoken English in the awareness of international citizens, but other English varieties spoken around the world should be included in this growing need (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005). Harding (2011) aimed to investigate the advantage of shared-L1 speech on English listening assessment by using multi methods for differential item functions (DIF) detection: conditional p value and the Mantel-Haenszel procedure. The listeners were university and language center students from China, Japan, and other non-inner English countries who were studying in Australia at that time. Three kinds of English accented speech: Australian-English accent, Mandarin-English accent, and Japanese-English accent were included into a listening test based on the University Test of English as a Second Language in Australia with multi-responding format: gap fills, table completion, short answer questions, and multiple-choice questions. The prompt of the listening test included 30-minute lectures under three topics: Food technology test spoken by an Australian, Sleep test produced by a Japanese speaker, and the last one about

Oldest Old test by a Chinese. There were four main sub-skills of the test: summarizing main points, recalling specific information, distinguishing between main points and supporting detail, and completing a graph, or diagram. The result of this study seemed to be mixed. It revealed that Chinese listeners gained some advantages across several items on the test featuring shared-L1 speaker. This might be because the listeners had to employ much bottom-up listening skills on the items in the Oldest Old test. On the contrary, Japanese listeners did not benefit much with the shared-L1 accented listening test. Similarly, Abeywickrama (2013) aimed to answer three main research questions: a) does the use of non-native varieties of English affect performance on listening tests?, b) do the test takers gain the benefit on shared-L1 speaking input?; and c) what are test taker perception towards accent input? Participants were international students from Brazil, Korea, and Sri Lanka in two US universities and the speakers were recruited from international teacher assistants from China, India, Sri Lanka and US. Two main instruments were administered: a listening test retired from TOEFL consisting of 8 texts and a background questionnaire. The finding revealed that the use of nonnative varieties did not affect the test takers' listening comprehension, and there was no advantage of test takers who shared the same language background as the speaker in the test input. Interestingly, the perception of the test takers on the varieties of English accent in the listening test seemed not to be concluded. Although they preferred native English accent, nonnative varieties of English were being heard for real life situations. Most participants tended to express negative attitudes towards shared-L1 English accent.

The study of Matsuura et al. (2014) aimed to answer two questions: a) was English spoken in unfamiliar accents more difficult for Japanese learners of English to comprehend than English in a familiar accent?, and b) did slowed speech rates of less familiar English accents produce better listening comprehension in Japanese university student?. The methodology responding to the first question is as follows: The spoken accents in the audio files were Indian representing as the unfamiliar accent and Canadian as the familiar accent. There were two types of research instruments: a listening test and a survey form including three statements: a) it is easy to understand

this speaker; b) this speaking accent is unfamiliar to me; c) this speaker's English is fast. A listening test was adapted from the official TOEIC Bridge Guide book in forms of monologue with fifteen multiple choice questions. The participants were Japanese university students who were divided into two groups. Group A was asked to take the first set of a listening test spoken by Indian and several weeks later, this group was asked to take the second set of a listening test spoken by Canadian. After each test, students had to rate the degree of comprehensibility, accentedness, and speech rate from 1 to 7 Likert scale. Group B did the same test in the converse way. The findings revealed that the score on the listening comprehension test seemed to be reduced by the unfamiliar accent. For the second question, two sets of the new listening comprehension test were prepared with four varieties of English from Kenya, India, Ghana, and Sri Lanka but in the different speed rate: unmodified (135-179 w/m) and modified rates (20% stretching from the original). The Japanese university students were grouped as experimental and controlled groups. The result showed that there was no significant difference between two different speed rates in two groups. However, a slower speech rate provided a positive effect on the comprehension of the least familiar accent.

Barlow (2009) aimed to investigate the effect of nonnative speaker accents on EFL students' listening comprehension and to study the students' attitude towards nonnative speaking teachers. There were six EFL professionals: Chinese, Egyptian, and American who were assigned to read the spoken texts. The finding showed that there were no significant differences between the six groups of students who had listened to six different speaker accents.

In the Thai context, Boonyarattapan (2006) found that there was a significant effect of the English accent varieties on the listening comprehension. That means the American English test was less difficult than the non-native English one. The second-year students from the School of Humanities, University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce were asked to take two sets of listening test. The first set was recorded by the varieties of English accents from the USA, United Kingdom, and Australia. The

second set was spoken by Japanese, Malaysian, Singaporean, and Chinese. The use of these English varieties was based on the statistic of tourists and investors by the Board of Investment and the Tourism Authority of Thailand in 2006.

Suppatkul (2009) put an attempt to compare listening comprehension ability of students listening to varieties of English accents. The participants were from Thepleela, Sripruetta, Triamudomsuka Pattnakarn and Horwang School. The varieties of English accents included in the listening test were American, Filipino and Thai based the survey in the number of foreign teachers in Bangkok, Thailand. The findings revealed that students have more difficulty to comprehend the Filipino-English accents than the other two.

As noticed from the investigation of the mentioned empirical studies, there were inconclusive results under the question about the impact of English accented speech as a listening input on the listening comprehension test.

Attitudes of listeners on English-accented speech

Besides two previous frontiers, Wong (2012) revealed that attitudes, one of five personal factors have the main influence on the development of listening ability. When listeners have positive attitude towards some characteristics of the listening test such as the topic, the speakers, the test format and so on, this can enhance listening ability. However, the reverse of this might negatively result in the achievement of the listeners' performance.

Research studies on attitudes toward English accented speech

The focus on attitudes toward varieties of English accents is various. Some researchers were interested in the attitude of native English (NE) speakers towards non-native English (NNE) accents while some emphasized the attitudes of NNS speakers towards NNS accents or even self-perception of NNE speakers on their own English accents. The roles of participants were also different, reliant on the objective of the

study. Some studies the listeners were the students from NS or NNS countries but some were the teachers from NE or NNE countries.

Under the classroom setting perspective, Walkinshaw and Duong (2012), for example, focused on the attitudes of Vietnamese learners towards NE and NNE teachers based on Brown's (2001) Language Teacher Characteristic frameworks: professional characteristics (experience of teaching and teaching qualifications relevant to EFL); personal characteristics (friendly personality and enthusiasm for teaching); pedagogical characteristics (able to teach interesting, informative classes); cultural characteristics (understanding of / familiarity with the students' local culture; and linguistic characteristics (advanced communicative competence in the L2). The findings showed that friendly personality and other five teaching qualities was placed greater importance than English fluency or native-speakerness.

Alseweed (2012) attempted to explore the general perceptions of university student of NESTs and NNESTs in the university level with 169 male undergraduates who have been taught by both NESTs and NNESTs. It was found that there was significant difference in the respondents' perception of their NESTs and NNESTs in terms of learning strategies. Although NNESTs understand students' English language difficulties together with more consciousness of students' learning styles and sharing Islamic culture and language needs, NESTs have innovative teaching strategies to help students learn better, prepare some independent learning activities, encourage students to speak English but they could not clearly explain the lessons. Moreover, NESTs provided comfortably and friendly class atmosphere to support the positive attitude toward the learning of English and the culture of the English speaking people as well as motivating students to learn more.

When the classroom setting in the Thai context was emphasized, Phothongsunan (2005) investigated the attitudes of 31 Business English major students in junior and senior level of a private Christianity university towards the characteristics of NESTs and Thai English teachers (TETs). Over half of the total number of participants

had little experienced with NESTs while seven participants had rarely spent time studying with TETs. The findings revealed that students expressed a strong preference for studying with NESTs under six main categories: teaching methods and styles; understanding of students' problems; grading and marking; language proficiency; personality; classroom behaviors and disciplines; and the ability to communicate and interact with learners.

In terms of the intelligibility of foreign English accent, Chen (2011) focused only on English-Cantonese and English-Mandarin accents. One of the main objectives was to explore non-native speakers' perceptual judgment of intelligibility and foreign accents. Five groups of listeners: native Cantonese, native Mandarin, native English, ESL, and EFL university-level students were asked to listen to two speakers included one Cantonese speaker and one Mandarin speaker. Two main instruments: a dictation task and the perceptual questionnaires were employed. The content of the questionnaires was divided into three components: competence, social attractiveness, and personal integrity, gathered from several studies on accents. The results showed that all groups perceived both the Cantonese and Mandarin accents to be at least 70% intelligible and native Cantonese and Mandarin listeners gained the advantage from their shared-L1 listening inputs. However, Mandarin-accented English seemed to be understood more easily than Cantonese-accented English. The reason of this difficulty was the Cantonese speaker made some phonological errors about word-stress shifts or double primary stress (e.g. *issue* sounding like *eat shoe*) together with initial and final consonant cluster simplifications and consonant shifts (e.g. /j/ to /s/ or /θ/ to /f/). Regarding perceptual judgments, all the listeners disfavor both accents as seen from the low level of rating in the questionnaire. Likewise, one research question of Episcopo's study was whether NNE graduate students' perception on five non-native English accents (e.g. Turkish, Mandarin, German, Korean, and Spanish) was shaped more by the native target or by intelligibility. Its findings showed that it was not important to pay attention how much native-like accent other NNE speakers produced but it is acceptable for NNE accents on intelligibility.

Besides this, participant's familiarity with specific accents was in focus by Ballard (2013). In order to study the identification of the varieties of English accents by participants, and to examine the rating score participants gave on four Likert-scales of comprehensibility, intelligibility, accentedness, and acceptability as a teacher. The participants were 38 Americans and 94 nonnative English speakers from China, Arabic, and Korea. They were assigned to listen to the recordings spoken by three native speakers from Midwestern U.S., Southern U.S., and British, and two nonnative speakers from China and Albania. The main instrument was a multi-faceted, web-based survey in four main components: a background questionnaire, Likert scale questions, a dictation task, and indication of the speakers' native status and accent. It was found that native English speakers were better to identify speakers' nativeness and accent than nonnative speakers. The level of accent familiarity was correlated with comprehensibility and acceptability as a teacher. Interestingly, there was the positive attitude toward nonnative English accents in terms of acceptability.

Under the language testing environment, Abeywickrama attempted to discover what perceptions and attitudes of test-takers from Korea, Brazil and Sri Lanka were on the use of non-native varieties as test input. The participants of this study did not give consistent judgment of comprehensibility on the test input produced by non-native speakers but more than 62% of them preferred using a native variety in the listening test.

In the United Arab Emirates, Barlow (2009) paid attention on how the attitudes and perception of test-takers correlate to their listening performance. Although the study was found that there was no explicit opinion whether a non-native speaker was easier to understand than a native speaker, most participants gave positive opinion on understandability and pronunciation produced by native English speakers. In the interview, students have no bias against nonnative English teachers. In fact, several students favored Arab nonnative English speaking teachers to translate vocabulary and complex ideas from English to Arabic.

In the Thai language testing context, the attitude towards the English varieties on a listening comprehension test was analyzed by Boonyarattapan (2006). She employed the modified matched-guise method spoken by 7 varieties of English together and the retrospective semi-structured interview questions. There were 10 adjectives under two main components: status (e.g. educated, intelligent, wealthy, successful and elegant) and solidarity (e.g. sociable, sincere, comforting, reliable and friendly) in this interview. Not only this, her participants were asked seven questions about preference on varieties of English. The findings indicated that the participants preferred the native speakers' accents to the nonnative speakers' accents. From semi-structured interview, they concluded that the nonnative accents were more difficult to comprehend than the native English accents.

One of the objectives in Suppatkul (2009)'s study is to investigate students' attitude towards the English accents. The verbal-guise test and the questionnaire in two dimensions: status and solidarity. The status dimension was illustrated by key adjectives such as intelligent-ignorant, confident-unconfident, and clear-unclear. The solidarity dimension was described by other adjectives such as friendly-unfriendly, pleasant-unpleasant, gentle-not gentle, and funny-not funny. The results revealed that the participants have higher attitudes towards American English more than other varieties (e.g. Filipino and Thai) in almost every aspect. Interestingly, the Filipino accent was rated at the lowest level in every aspect.

2.2.6 Theoretical framework of the listening test validity

A socio-cognitive framework for validating listening tests originally proposed by Weir (2005) is adapted for the study. Two aspects: a priori validation and a posteriori validity are organized for listening test validity. A priori evidence generated before the main test event can be constituted by three dimensions: the specification of test-taker characteristics, the process of context and cognitive validity through the scoring analysis from trailing the prospective test whereas a posteriori evidence administered after the pilot test is demonstrated by scoring analysis for meaningful scoring

interpretation. This following figure simplified the systematic system of developing, validating and analyzing the key features of a listening test.

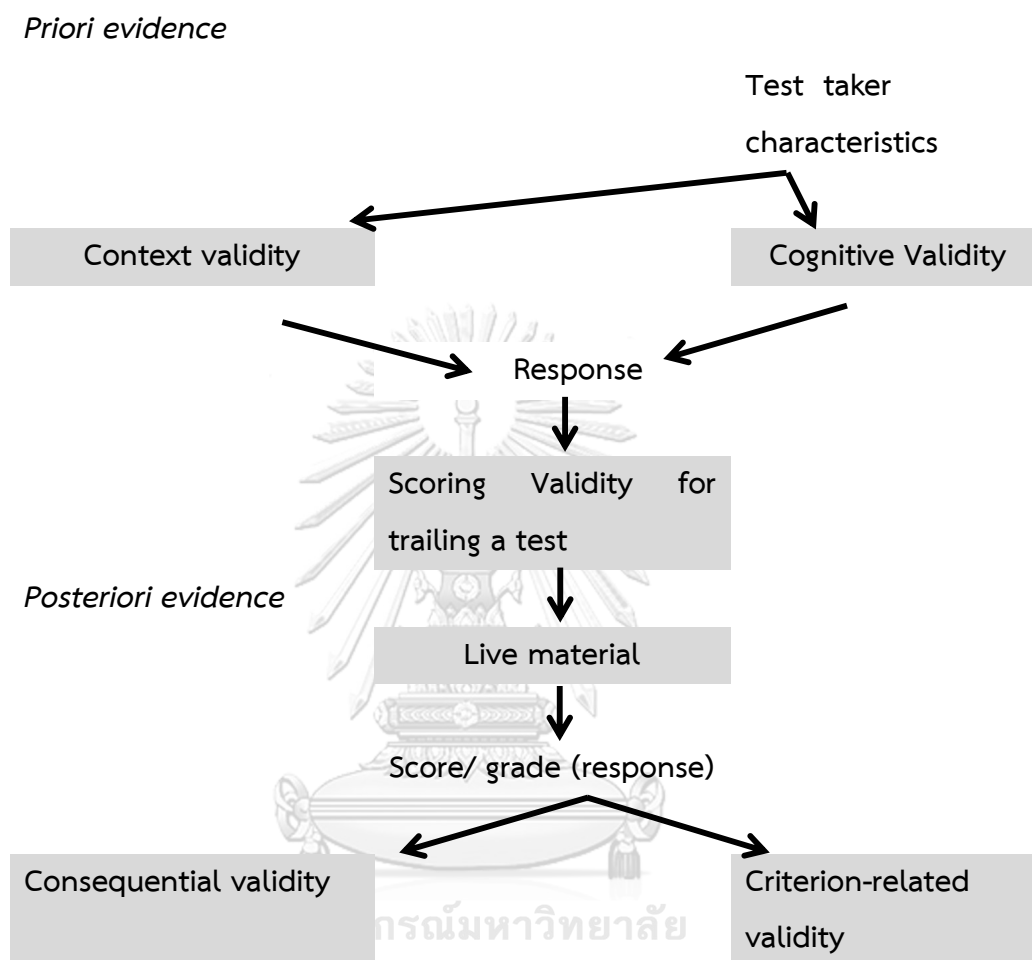


Figure 2 A socio-cognitive framework for testing listening adapted from Weir, 2005

1) Priori evidence

Stage 1: Specification of test-taker characteristics

Weir (2005) claimed that three main types of test taker characteristics might have the potential to affect the way individuals process and attempt to complete the test tasks:

1. Physical and physiological characteristics

Individual test takers may need special treatment because of short-term ailments or long-term disabilities. The test should be in the ground of equity

and fair access with regard to test-takers' age, nationality, native language, and level of education.

2. Psychological characteristics

A test-taker's affective schemata, such as motivation and preference may affect the way a task is administered.

3. Experiential characteristics,

A test-taker's familiarity on accents, test contents, test types and other environment features may affect the way the task is administered.

Stage 2: Cognitive Validity

The cognitive validity refers to the correspondence between the test tasks and the test-takers whose listening processes in the test can mirror in the real-world listening event (Field, 2013). The test writer should take the following three significant components of listening tests into account in order to draw out the listeners' cognitive processing (e.g. input decoding, lexical search, parsing, meaning construction, and discourse construction):

1. The recording such as speech accents, rate, length, and unscripted or scripted speech;
2. The test method such as the instruction of the test task, pre-or post-set questions, number of playing the recording, time period, and test formats;
3. The test items representing local-level perceptual processing (e.g. lexical or syntactic levels) and meaning-related processes (e.g. meaning and discourse construction).

It is assumed that the consequence of this mechanism closely resembles the cognitive process of non-test language use. Three key questions fostering the test writer's confidence in cognitive validation of listening test are as follows (Field, 2013):

- a) Are the processes adopted during a test sufficiently similar to those, which would be employed in the target content?
- b) Do the items in the test elicit only a small or broad range of the cognitive processes that language users would employ in a natural context?

- c) Are the cognitive demands, especially in a level-based test appropriately calibrated with the performance features that might be expected of a listener at each level?

Stage 3: Context Validity

Weir (2005) revealed that the term, 'context' refers to the relationship between the linguistic and content demands of listening texts and the features of the task and administration settings that impact on task completion. That is, the context must be accepted by test-takers and expert judges that linguistic and content demands of the spoken text are appropriate under the task and administration settings. The following are some interesting questions test developer should take carefully into consideration when selecting test tasks, texts, and test methods (Elliott & Wilson, 2013; Taylor & Geranpayeh, 2011):

1. Task purpose and rubric
 - Is the test taker clearly explained about the instruction or the rubric of the test?
 - Are the test materials and methods authentic? Can the tasks in the test be generalized to the real-life listening situation? That is, are the tasks the good representative sample of exposing test-takers' listening performance to the real-life situation? This is called as interactional authenticity. Are the test methods relevant to the features of a specific target language use situations? This is known as situational authenticity.
 - Are text and task related under the task purpose?
2. Response methods
 - Does the test involve a selected response format, or a constructed response format, or both?
 - Are selected response methods appropriate for the test at different levels of language proficiency?

- Are selected response methods introduce other elements of reading, writing, or speaking which are defined outside the construct of listening? Be reminded that both construct-irrelevant variance and construct under-representation affect the quality of the test.
3. Weighting
 - Is the test-takers clearly informed about scoring each test item with different marking?
 4. Knowledge of criteria
 - Is the description on the marking criteria such as in terms of accuracy on grammatical structure, spellings or pronunciation transparent to the test-takers?
 5. Order of items
 - Are the test items or tasks organized in sequence, from easier to more difficult one aligned with the English proficiency level of target test takers?
 6. Channel of presentation
 - In what way should the test input be transmitted e.g. audio-based channel, video-based channel, computer-based test, or some other technological combinations?
 - Are the test items shown or not shown to the test takers?
 7. Text length
 - Is the length of a text related to the number of items under sufficient time?
 8. Time constraints
 - How long should be appropriate for test takers to read all necessary instructions and rubric or deal with all necessary elements of each listening text?
 9. Overall text purpose and discourse mode
 - How well is the discourse oriented to achieve in the average listener for whom it is intended?
 - Are the discourse modes of the text in the listening test associated with the text purpose under the TLU domain?

10. Functional, grammatical, and lexical resources

- How well does the functional content covered in the test match to that of the particular domains e.g. educational, occupational, public or personal?
- How well does the grammatical content reflect the level of listening proficiency encountered in the particular domains?
- What is the proportion of lexis (e.g. technical or nontechnical words) covered in each text?

11. Nature of information and content knowledge

- Is the level of abstraction in the text appropriate under the text purpose under TLU domain?
- Is the topic of the text appropriate the particular target domains?
- Is the degree of the background knowledge, subject knowledge or cultural knowledge appropriate in listening comprehension under the particular purpose?

12. Speaker variables

- Is the level of interpersonal relationship, speech rate, or the varieties of accent in the listening input appropriate for the text purpose?

Stage 4: The Scoring validity for trailing a test

Weir (2005) revealed it is important to validate the scoring process of test performance which embraces setting up the marking criterion that scores a test-taker's responses to a test. This leads to the confidence of scoring interpretation replicated under particular conditions because the major focus is placed on the relationship among cognitive validity, context validity and scoring validity. This is frequently referred to as 'construct validity' (Geranpayeh, 2013). The key parameters influencing scoring validity include as follows (Weir, 2005):

- Test difficulty: item facility, item discrimination, and item difficulty
- Internal consistency: reliability, internal consistency coefficients
- Item bias
- error of measurement

- grading and awarding

It is worth noting that these methods can alleviate the problematic issues on factors influencing the suitability of test materials in listening tests and the interference of unwanted variables towards the scoring result of listening tests as a negative effect.

II) Posteriori evidence

Stage 5: Score interpretation

In this stage, the finalized score of the test can be examined by the two main methods under a posteriori external dimension: consequential validity and criterion-related validity.

Consequential Validity

Consequential validity concerns establishing the evidence relating matters of score interpretation, covering washback on individuals in the classroom, and impact on institutions and society. The evidence collected on the test taker should be analyzed that test bias has been avoided for individuals as a result of decisions in some particular conditions. It is worth noting that the consequential validity considered after a test has been developed and validated against the aforementioned priori validity including test taker characteristics, the test context, internal learner processes or cognitive processes and the scoring process of the test.

Criterion-related validity

Criterion-related validity identifies the score value by comparing the test score with different versions of the same test, with the same test administered on different occasions, with other test or measurements, or even with future performance (Weir, 2005).

Section 2.3: Overview of test-taking strategies

This section aims to review the components of test-taking strategies proposed by Cohen (2012) as the framework of the qualitative data equipped with retrospective interview, one of the main research instruments. Test taking strategies are viewed as one of important tools to enhance test-takers to achieve their learning or testing tasks in a particular language skill. An illustration of this is, in the listening skill, they foster listeners to effectively understand acoustic listening tasks in particular purposes: improving memory for better studying or overcoming some test difficulties (Cohen, 2011; Field, 2008; Lynch, 2011; Rost, 2002).

Strategies have long been in focus as a technique or method by several empirical studies for different purposes in learning (e.g. O'Malley and Chamot, 1990 as cited in Field, 2008) or achieving to particular language skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening (e.g. Taherkhani, , 2011). Phakiti (2003) posited that strategies can be defined into different ways based on the purpose of the users. That is, strategies that language learners purposefully use to enhance their language learning and acquisition are called as learning strategies whereas strategies they purposefully employ to enhance other performance associated with a specific situation such as to complete a language task and to achieve the high test score are called as use strategies.

In the perspective of instructional areas, learning strategies are defined as any mental or behavioral devices used by learners in learning (Rost, 2002). Inevitably, these strategies are considered the learner's good assistant in compensating for a deficit in learning (Cohen, 2011) to the enhancement of both the learning and use of the target language with the purpose of effective performance in specified tasks. Sometimes, the effective selection of the learning strategies provides the solution for specific problems together with the ease, rapidness, and happiness in learning. Learning strategies can be classified into three types based on the framework of O'Malley and Chamot (1990 as cited in Field, 2008):

a) Cognitive strategy

This refers to the way learners operate and manipulate directly the incoming information to enhance learning. It involves the mental process of knowing together with awareness, perception, reasoning, and judgment (R. L. Oxford & Schramm, 2011). The cognitive function is viewed like a computer industry in the model of processing information under the input-process-output stage comprising sensation, perception, attention, encoding and memory (Jordan et al., 2008).

b) Metacognitive strategy

It refers to the way learners plan, monitor, or evaluate the success of a learning activity or what they decoded. Put in another word, metacognitive strategies are beyond cognition because learners are assisted to regulate and control their cognitive strategy use (Oxford & Schramm, 2011).

c) Socio-affective strategy

It refers to the way learners attempt to assist their learning by interacting with another person.

These three types of strategies can be included in forms of several common strategy inventories as an instrument to measure students' strategy use. The study of Sheu (2011), for example, was adapted language learning strategies based on the taxonomy of Oxford (1990) consisting of the following two main categories:

a) Direct strategies relate directly to learners' mental process which is categorized into three main categories: memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies.

- Memory strategies are used by the means of remembering and retrieving new information to link, group, apply, and review images and sounds;
- Cognitive strategies serve for understanding and producing the language. These server for practicing, receiving, and sending messages, analyzing, reasoning and creating structure for input and output;

- Compensation strategies serve for using the language despite knowledge gaps to compensate for limited knowledge. These help learners to guess intelligently using information such as context; they help overcome limitations in speaking and writing by using synonyms or gesture to convey meanings.
- b) Indirect strategies do not directly involve using a certain language, but provide indirectly support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, and increasing cooperation and empathy. This includes meta-cognitive, affective, and social strategies

However, Cohen (2011) claimed that there are many hindrances towards the effective utility of learners' strategies in terms of the level of consciousness, degree of attention reflecting mental activity, the explicit description of the action, degree of goal orientation, strategy size (e.g. macro-micro strategies or in combination), and potential of using related knowledge to learning.

2.3.1 Test-taking strategies

In language testing, a test is one of the prevailing tools to evaluate learners' achievement on what they have learnt based on the course syllabus. It is also beneficial for both academic and business organizations in making decisions about admission or job recruitment, respectively. Thus, the performance of the test taker by using test-taking strategies on tests has become a major concern for the validity and reliability of the test reflecting the interpretation of test scores close to the realistic situation of language performance.

Cohen (2012) provided the definition of 'test-taking strategies' as the consciously selected processes that test-takers use to overcome the difficulty of item-response demands in the test-taking tasks at hand. It is a skill that permits a test-taker to utilize the characteristics and forms of tests and/or test-taking situation to receive a high score (Amer, 1993). Al-Fraidan and Al-Khalaf (2012) noticed that the effectiveness

of the strategy use is aligned on two main elements: the degree of the consciousness and the goal-orientation. The former is viewed as the conscious selection of language knowledge and taking-test knowledge during testing whereas the latter focuses on the way to deal with the problematic issues of language and to overcome the difficulty of test items.

2.3.2 Types of test taking strategies

Cohen (2012) postulated three main types of test taking strategies: 1) Language learner strategies, 2) Test-management strategies, and 3) Test-wiseness strategies in order to enhance their listening performance on the tests.

2.3.2.1 Language learner strategies

This strategy type refers to the way test-takers use their basic skills of language to deal with the test task and test items. Regarding the listening comprehension items, the test takers draw their repertoire of listening strategies to answer the questions. That is, the memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies are included during taking a test which facilitates the listening test performance (Al Fraidan & Al-Khalaf, 2012; Sheu, 2011).

When paying attention to the lecture, learners are expected to apply three basic components of learning strategies: cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective strategies to interpret what they heard in practical ways. For example, listeners might give more emphasis on the listening text with high degree of consciousness to select proper strategies and choose some main information for specific purposes. This process can be viewed as listening strategies. It is one of techniques or activities that allow listeners to contribute directly to the comprehension and recall of listening input which is more difficult than the current processing listeners possess. That means, listeners should select the appropriate strategies and consciously plan to manage incoming speech beyond their linguistic knowledge, particularly when the listeners know that they must compensate input or partial understanding (Rost, 2002).

With reference to a classic model of comprehension in the first language acquisition, Goh (2014) summarized the function of cognitive process relevant to the listening comprehension skill of the second language learners into three phases: perception, parsing, and utilization.

1) Perception occurs when listeners hear the message and match the sounds to words they stored in short or long-term memory, and they can recognize words in the stream of speech.

2) Parsing occurs when listeners endeavor to analyze the recognized words into larger units in forms of grammatical structure and lexical clues. Rost (1994) added that parsing is the process of dividing the incoming string of speech into grammatical categories and relationships. The literal interpretation of the spoken text will take place in the stage.

3) Utilization occurs when listeners bring all information processed at the phonological, grammatical, and lexical levels related to their prior background stored in the long-term memory in order to interpret semantically and comprehend the overall meaning of spoken messages.

Goh (2000) conducted the study about listening comprehension problems of language learners in high and low English proficiency levels based on the three phase cognitive model above in the real time. She found that there are 10 main problems occurring during listening. That is, under the first phase, perception, listeners encountered the lack of word recognition, the negligence of next part when thinking about meaning, the difficulty in chunking streams of speech, the missing of the beginning of texts, and too much concentration or loss of attention. In the phase of parsing, listeners seemed to quickly forget what is heard, unable to form a mental representation from words heard, and not to understand subsequent parts of input because of earlier problem. For the last phase, utilization, listeners found the difficulty to understand words but not the intended message and had the confusion of the key ideas in the message. She finally revealed that both high and low English ability groups encounter two main similar problems in terms of the lack of recognition of words they know under the perception stage and a short memory of what was heard under the

parsing stage. However, the high English ability group reached the utilization problem by understanding words but not the intended message while the low level group struggled in the perceptual stage by neglecting the next part when thinking about meaning.

As noticed, Anderson' term, utilization, resembles the conceptual phase by Field (2013) referring to an interaction between the meaning that has been derived from an utterance and external knowledge possessed by the listener. Under this phase, there is an emergence of two key stages: meaning construction and discourse construction. Both are able to be placed as the high level of cognitive process associated with three types of supportive sources: the pragmatic knowledge, external knowledge, and discourse representation. The pragmatic knowledge is concentrated on the relationship between linguistic form and speaker intentions whereas the external knowledge is related to world knowledge, speaker knowledge and knowledge of situation. Discourse representation includes the listener's awareness of the current topic and the listener's recall the listening event.

Therefore, Field (2013) shed more light on the cognitive processing by expanding it into five levels based on the aforementioned operation of Anderson (2000) as follows:

1. Input decoding

Listeners attempt to match the acoustic signals with the phonological system they had into a group of syllables.

2. Lexical search

Listeners recognize what they heard from syllables to form the word boundary.

3. Parsing

Listeners connect the lexical material with the co-text a speaker is saying in order to specify lexical sense more precisely under the scope of syntactic pattern.

4. Meaning construction

Listeners attempt to interpret the information they heard into two levels of

meaning: a propositional one and a mental model or meaning representation. The proposition meaning focuses on literal interpretation whereas the mental model requires more complex components: contextual information, schematic information, and inferences.

5. Discourse construction

Listeners have to integrate their overall recall of what has been said including both old and new information of their working memory into the speech event. Thus, they can make appropriate decision in the meaning of the messages a speaker intended to convey.

Besides this, the National Capital Language Resource Center (NCLRC) provided the illustration of cognitive strategies in terms of the interactive model of listening skills as fundamental guidelines for listeners to effectively understand the acoustic stimuli and listening tasks as follows:

a) Top-down strategies

It can be called listener-based strategies. Listeners put a lot of effort to draw out their background knowledge on the topic, situation, context, type of texts and language to help interpretation of what is heard and to anticipate what will come next. This strategy can be transformed in practical ways: listening for the main idea, predicting, drawing inferences and summarizing.

b) Bottom-up strategies

It is viewed as text based strategies. Listeners rely on the language in the message and match it with linguistic knowledge they have by segmenting it into sounds, words, and grammar in the meaningful way. This strategy can be transformed into practical ways: listening for specific details, recognizing cognates, and recognizing word-order patterns.

2.3.2.2 Test-management strategies

This strategy refers to the way test-takers consciously respond to test items and tasks in the meaningful way by eliminating, comparing, and crosschecking some options that are unrelated to the input texts or the given passages under the time

planning. That is, the metacognitive strategies are included during taking a test. It also enhances the use of cognitive strategies by the means of goal setting, planning, monitoring, and self-evaluating (Al Fraidan & Al-Khalaf, 2012). Bachman and Palmer (1996) called this process as strategic competence and classified it into three categories:

1. *Goal setting*: deciding what one is going to do.
 - a) Identifying the test tasks.
 - b) Choosing one or more tasks from a set of possible tasks.
 - c) Deciding whether or not to attempt to complete the task(s) selected.
2. *Assessment*: Taking stock of what is needed, what one has to work with, and how well one has done.
 - a) Assessing the characteristics of the test task to determine the desirability and feasibility of successfully completing it and what is needed to complete it.
 - b) Assessing our knowledge components to see if relevant areas of knowledge are available for successfully completing the test task.
 - c) Assessing the correctness or appropriateness of the response to the test task
3. *Planning*: deciding how to use what one has.
 - a) Selecting elements from the areas of knowledge for successfully completing the test task.
 - b) Formulating one or more plans for implementing these elements in a response to the test task.
 - c) Selecting one plan for initial implementation

In order to reduce the stress together with effectively manipulating the cognitive strategy use, successful listeners tend to implement metacognitive strategies when confronting with the difficult listening tasks. That is because the metacognitive strategies allow listeners to plan or select the amount of information relevant to the specific purpose, monitor or check the comprehension during listening, and evaluate

how well they achieved their listening. Rost (2002) summarized key listening strategies employed by successful listeners to achieve particular listening purposes as follows:

- a) Predicting information or ideas prior to listening;
- b) Making inferences from incomplete information based on prior knowledge;
- c) Monitoring their selected listening processes in relation to success while or after listening;
- d) Attempting to clarify areas of confusion;
- e) Responding to what one has understood;
- f) Evaluating how well one has understood.

Interestingly, Barta (2010) focused on knowledge about language and attempted to discover test-takers' listening comprehension sub-skills and strategies of 14 Hungarian students through introspective and retrospective interviews. The result revealed 27 categories in two main groups: language competence (7 listening sub-skills including grammatical, discourse, and sociolinguistic knowledge) and strategic competence (e.g. cognitive, compensatory, and metacognitive strategies). Chiu (1997) employed a different research instrument: the post-test listening test-taking strategy questionnaire to investigate on listening test-taking strategies in the GEPT listening comprehension test taken by 163 non-English majors from a technological university in southern Taiwan. The questionnaire items were divided into five categories: memory, cognition, compensation, metacognition and affective strategies. Participants will ask to complete the questionnaire immediately after they complete each of three listening test sections. The result found that affective, metacognitive, and compensation strategies were employed more frequently than others throughout the listening task. In the section of picture description and the question/statement response, participants often used compensation strategies whereas affective strategies were ranked first in the section of short conversations.

Regarding the implication of cognitive and metacognitive strategies, Taherkhani (2011) explored the use of listening strategies by active and passive students who were in the Persian high school levels. There are four main instruments: Raven IQ test, Irenck

Lie test, 11-item strategy questionnaire and an article of a Persian newspaper. The results revealed that the first three strategies both groups used to make them easier to understand the listening text were (1) searching for meaning, (2) considering the context and color of words, and (3) knowing close or cursory listening. They argued because these students were in the beginning level of English, they did not employ some metacognitive strategies like checking their understanding or connecting their understanding with places or situations they knew, some strategy knowledge like note taking, outlining or sorting, and some task knowledge like attending to listening. With reference to many empirical studies from Sheu's (2011) study, they indicated that high level English students use learning strategies more frequently than low level English students and also in technology colleges, high-level students tended to employ listening strategies more frequently than low-level students.

Graham (2006) conducted the study to answer two main questions: (a) how successful did learners believe themselves to be as listeners, and to what did they attribute their success or lack of it?, and (b) what strategies were they aware of employing when listening?. Two main instruments: questionnaires in both close-and open-ended questions, and semi-structured interview were employed to high school students at the age of 16-18 who were studying French in England. The findings showed that large number of students identified themselves as the low achievers of listening because they had problem of perception in terms of speed of text delivery, and pronunciation as well as lack of practice. In the interview, students had no confidence to identify the listening strategies they were most aware of. The researcher suggested the combination of top-down and bottom-up strategies and activities are beneficial to teach to learners.

Practically, Sheu (2011) investigated the effect of an Online General English Proficiency simulated-test English remedial course on English language-learning strategy use and perceptions together with test performance. Three instruments: a elementary-level GEPT reading and listening tests, Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning questionnaire (e.g. memory, cognition, compensation, meta-

cognition, and socio-affection), and Students' Perceptions toward the Online Remedial Course were employed with EFL technical university students in southern Taiwan. The result showed that the participants expressed their significant improvement in the listening comprehension test rather than the reading test with the significant wider use of both direct and indirect English language learning strategies after attending the course. These participants revealed that the course helped them improve the skills of listening, reading and vocabulary.

Saengsri (2011) implemented a questionnaire and a semi-structured retrospective interview to explore the listening strategies by Thai learners. From the questionnaire, it was found that three most frequently used strategies of listening are directed attention, selective attention, and prediction while three least frequently used listening strategies were repetition, note-taking, and positive talk e.g. telling themselves, 'I am right' or 'I know this'.

However, research studies on test-taking strategies have been limited especially in listening skills when compared to other English skills: reading, speaking and writing. As noticed, two main types of investigation appealing to numerous language testing scholars are test-takers' knowledge about the language and their knowledge about a test. Most of these studies tended to analyze two topics separately. It can also be easily seen that most scholars primarily aimed to describe and assess the language test ability of an individual together with constructing an extensive theory of language test performance responding to non-test language use without explicitly concentrating on the test-wiseness strategies.

2.3.2.3 Test-wiseness strategies

The test-wiseness strategies refer to the way test takers use the knowledge of test formats or other information to answer test items without using their expected linguistic or cognitive processes. It is a skill that permits a test-taker to implement the characteristics and forms of tests and/or test taking situation rather than language use strategies to increase the test score no matter what the content area of a test is (Cohen,

2012). For example, the test takers might use the possible keyword cues from the listening text to choose one choice of each test item in the blindly vague sense of the text. Put in another word, language-use strategies may be determined by the learners' proficiency in the language under assessment whereas test-wiseness strategies may depend on the test-takers' knowledge of how to take a test which might be unrelated to the test construct (Barati & Kashkoul, 2013).

In the multiple-choice listening test, test wiseness strategies are considered the impediment of the test validity because these strategies are employed to select the correct response without necessarily knowing the content or skill that is being measured (Al Fraidan & Al-Khalaf, 2012). There was a stronger relationship between test-taking skills and multiple-choice test performance than with constructed response test performance as shown in the study of Cohen (1998, cited in Al Fraidan & Al-Khalaf, 2012). It result revealed that three test wiseness strategies used by examinees when taking a multiple-choice test are as follows: 1) making a surface matching of some information in the passage with the identical information in the item stem and in one of the response choices, 2) making use of material from a previous item when it “gives away”, or reveals, the answer to a subsequent one, and 3) taking shortcuts to arrive at answers—that is, not reading the text but simply searching for the answers to the reading comprehension questions. Moreover, he also mentioned that in the case of responding to multiple-choice questions, a test-wise examinee may choose an answer because it is a) the only grammatical one, b) the longest one, or c) the first or the last response.

Another issue related to multiple-choice test-taking strategies was conducted by Ghafournia (2013). This study aims to investigate the significant interaction between these strategies and general English proficiency levels of Iranian EFL students. The participants were divided into three groups: high, intermediate, and low. There were two research instruments: a TOEFL multiple-choice test and the 20-item questionnaire with a 5-point Likert scale. In the questionnaire, the strategies in time using, error avoidance, guessing and intent consideration were focused. The results revealed that

high proficiency test takers used error avoidance and time using test-taking strategies more frequently than other groups. Interestingly, low proficiency test takers employed less frequently on guessing test-taking strategies than high and intermediate ones.

In practice, Chen (2011) provided four main strategies: guessing, keeping to the point, anticipating, and taking notes as feasible teaching methods for teachers to improve their students' listening comprehension competence. In terms of guessing, students were able to be trained to use their linguistic knowledge to tackle some problematic issues like strange words or ambiguous and vague speech signal sounds. The second term is anticipation in which the existing knowledge is required to make judgment on the content the students paid attention to. The third term is to keep to the point. It means students should learn to screen, choose, or ignore some speech information regarding what the purpose of the listening text is. The final one is note taking, referring to the method of recording key details of a discourse with a relative great length. This can reduce the overload of memory in their mind and assist them for conveniently recalling their existing memory from the note.

2.3.3 Retrospective interview

Because one of my research objectives is to provide insights of using test-taking strategies to deal with a (multiple-choice) listening comprehension test by low-level and high-level English achievers, retrospective interview is considered the effective research instrument under the verbal protocol analysis compatible with this endeavor rather than utilizing the interviewing approach in general.

According to Green (1998), verbal protocol analysis is the qualitative methodology based on an individual's verbalization in forms of think aloud or talk aloud taking place as the task is carried out or after the task has been carried out. The term, protocol, refers to utterances made by the individual who is deal with a single task, or a series of tasks. A set of protocols gathered constitute a body of qualitative data. Verbal protocol is a special label used to describe the data gathered from an individual under special conditions where the person is asked to either 'talk aloud' or

to 'think aloud'. It can be the supplementing data in which standard statistical procedures cannot be directly applied because it involves the identification of cognitive process during or after working on text comprehension. Cognitive process is hard to directly observe and it needs indirect evidence. In my language testing study, verbal protocol analysis is served as a means for supplementing data where the validation of assessment instruments and methods are key concerns.

Undeniably, verbal report continues to play a key role in test-taking strategy research but there are some different procedures for conducting such verbal reports depending on the type of research question and some specific circumstances (Zheng, 2009). The first category is about the form of report in the way of either 'talk aloud' or 'think aloud'. Some discrepancies between two terms should be in consideration. In talk aloud, the report produced will include information from verbal report that roughly corresponds to words in mind, or thoughts whereas in think aloud, the same process as talk aloud takes place but think aloud pays more attention on non-verbal information that must be transformed and then verbalized. Sometimes, the process of thinking aloud report might take longer time than that of talking aloud report. The second category is about temporal variations: concurrent or retrospective reports. Concurrent reports (interview) are generated at the same time as the individual is working on the task by either a talk aloud or a think aloud while retrospective reports (interview) are generated after the individual has finished working on the task. The final category is the procedural variations in forms of non-mediated and mediated verbalization. The difference of two terms should be taken into account. In non-mediated verbalization, individuals are asked to flow their thinking aloud without interruption from the researcher except long pauses occurring. In mediated verbalization, the individual may be asked questions or requested for explanation and justification as the task is being carried out or afterwards. Some believed that mediated verbalization might hinder the natural sequence of behavior because the questions might gear individuals to switch their attention to what is being requested.

Cohen (2012) postulated that the following feasible verbal report approaches may reflect the use of test-taking strategies:

a) Self-report

This refers to the way that learners themselves describe what they do in verbal statement involving their test-taking strategies.

b) Self-observation

It refers to the way that learners inspect themselves on specific, contextualized language behavior, either introspectively (within 20 seconds of the mental event), or retrospectively (immediately after that).

c) Self-revelation

It refers to the use of 'think-aloud', stream-of-consciousness disclosure of thought processes while the information is being attended to.

It can be noticed that retrospective interview or sometimes called retrospective verbal report in one part of verbal protocol analysis. It takes place after the test is over or the particular task is complete, different from the concurrent interview in terms of temporal variation managed during taking a test or completing a task. Concurrent interview are less problematic from unwanted variables than are retrospective one. That is, the retrospective interview should be more carefully organized in terms of time interval. In order to have the description of the process in the qualitative way without filtering or 'tidying up' information (Green, 1998), the retrospective interview should be done immediately after task completion, not leave the time interval too long. If delay between task completion and production of the verbal report, there are two problem emerging: (a) redundant information might be included and (b) the analyze of the verbal report might be difficult because there are mixture between information attended to as the task was carried out and information acquired or attended to after the task was completed. Similarly, before concurrent and retrospective interviews commence, the form of report (e.g. think aloud or talk aloud) and procedural variations (e.g. mediated or non-mediated verbalizations) should be identified to be compatible with the research objective and questions. It is believed that the verbal reports like concurrent and retrospective interviews are advantageous

for researchers or related test stakeholders because it allows them to go deep insights into the descriptive dimensions of processing different kinds of language test tasks. This can be one part of test try-out phase before tests are used operationalized to make decision (Bachman, 2004). However, Green (1998) mentioned some cautions affecting the validity of the verbal reports leading to inaccurate reflection of processes test-takers used. The first problem is incomplete reporting. That is, test takers might leave out descriptions of processes they use when taking test tasks. The second problematic issue is distorted reporting. Test takers might provide inaccurate description of the processes that are used. The final one is extraneous reporting. Test takers might provide some information or description of the processes that are not actually used.

2.3.3.1 Procedure of analyzing verbal reports

In language testing, verbal reports can be applied in every cycle of test development: selection and editing of material, trialing, and pretesting. For example, Buck (1992, cited in Green, 1998) aimed to develop a listening test by interviewing participants about the characteristic skills they used in the test task and items. Verbal reports can also help to evaluate materials and provide more valuable information to be used during the construct validation process than in a quantitative data.

Generally, there are three main phases of verbal report procedure based on Green (1998): (a) data preparation and collection, (b) developing coding scheme, and (c) analyzing coding scheme. In the first phase, preparing and collecting data, the research should firstly begin with identifying particular text and task types to assess specific language ability. The next step is analyzing the task, in which some definitions, methods and knowledge have already been theoretically generated. This helps in constructing a coding scheme as well. Then, researchers have to select which types of report: concurrent or retrospective report is appropriate for their study. For language testing, the concurrent report might not be proper for listening and speaking tasks because it might interfere the test-takers' cognitive process when they are dealing with the tasks. However, retrospective report should be in careful application because some more additional information is filled in after the task has been completed. Importantly before collecting data, clear and unambiguous instructions should be given to the test-

takers together with explaining them the procedure to be used and giving them a practice task. At this stage, the feedback from researchers should be provided to make sure that the procedure is followed. Then, the research can ask the test taker for permission in tape and video recordings. Interviewing either concurrently or retrospectively should be in the quiet room. This recording can facilitate the generation and production of these verbal reports. Sometimes, long silence from the test takers might hinder the process of interviewing, so the instruction 'keep talking' should be used. Finally, data from tape recording should be transcribed in full. The second phase, the development of a coding scheme, focuses on the construction of categories that best capture the range of heeded information from verbal protocol. Then the researcher should identify the main unit for analysis in forms of a phrase, clause or sentence and then segment the protocols. The last phase is the analysis of verbal protocol data involving the establishment of the reliability of coding in forms of inter-coder or intra-coder reliability as well as techniques for coding data such as contrasting group designs (e.g. comparing between performance data and verbal protocols) and profiling (e.g. construction in a picture of sequences of heeded information comparing with the predicted sequences).

2.3.3.2 The reliability of coding schemes

Two key methods of establishing encoder reliability: inter-coder reliability and intra-coder reliability play important roles in measuring the reliability of content analysis research referring to a systematic, replicable method for classifying many words of text into fewer content categories based on explicit rules of coding and categorizing (Weber, 1990). Intra-coder reliability refers to an estimate of the relative consistency of the coding decision by one judge or one coder over time whereas inter-coder reliability is used to assess the degree of agreement between two independent coders coding the same pieces of content (Given, 2008).

The following are the useful steps of checking the reliability of inter-coding clarified by Mouter and Vonk Noordegraaf (2012). Firstly, a selection of coding and categories together with their definitions relevant to the study should be made for

coders. Next, the coders should be in a training session to be familiar with the definitions of coding and categories in order to protect the ambiguities of coding. Then, approximately 10 percent of the total content pieces should be determined as the sample of testing reliability for the coders (Lombard, Snyder-Duch, & Bracken, 2005). After two or more coders have finished coding the same sample of the content, the comparison of their findings begins with calculating by one of reliability coefficient techniques: Percent agreement, Holsti's method, Cohen's kappa (k), Scott's pi (p), Krippendorff's alpha (α), or Reliability Calculator (ReCal) in order to assess how much the data deviates from perfect reliability for particular endeavors. When the level of inter- or intra-coder reliability is high, it means that one or more coders make the same decision when coding the same pieces of content in the consistent way (Krippendorff, 2004).

Interestingly, the inter-coder reliability demonstrates the trustworthiness of data together with measuring reproducibility. It refers to the same results of content classification in the same content produced by more than one coder who has different experience and intellectual background and puts attempt to make the same assessment decision. Likewise, intra-coder reliability finds it useful to analyze the consistency within a single coder with the degree of the stability referring to the same results of content classification invariant over time when the same coder codes the same content more than once (Weber, 1990). Even though intra-coder reliability can be established in the same procedure as inter-coder reliability, it provided undesirable results such as the same coding errors and long-term memory of the coder when coding over time (Green, 1998).

2.3.4 Research studies on protocol analysis

There have been fewer studies on listening comprehension tests under the issue of validation than those on reading comprehension tests in language testing areas (Zheng, 2009). In the pedagogical area, the current problematic issue about EFL students who had six to ten year experience in learning English and feel frustrated and helpless in listening skills should also be in concern (Zhang, 2012). One way to tackle

these problems is to discover more information about learners' cognitive process dealing with listening task by using verbal reports in order to enhance both teaching and testing methodology. That is why Zhang (2012) conducted the study about the impact of listening strategy on listening comprehension with second-year non-English major students at Shandong Economic College. The participants were divided into the experiment and control group. The experimental groups received 15-week training on listening strategies. The research instruments consist of a pre-treatment questionnaire based on O'Malley and Chamot's model, a listening task battery, and verbal report protocols (before, during and after the listening process). In her study, the verbal report served as a qualitative means for determining whether the training was reliable and valid. The results showed that listening training can enhance students' listening ability because the experimental group outperformed the control ones. The verbal reports ensured that strategy training did help students with their listening comprehension and also showed some weaknesses of students in metacognitive strategies (e.g. redirecting their attention to the listening task) and the top-down processing strategies (e.g. inferencing and elaboration).

Another interesting study conducted by Chang (2009) is about EFL listeners' task-based strategies and their relationship with listening performance. The researcher realized that the way learners utilize strategies in actual tasks has been in the ignorance. Seventy-five college students in Taipei, Taiwan who studied English formally for eight years were the participants of the study. The research instruments were a listening test-taking strategy questionnaire adopted from his previous study in 2008, a 40-item listening test, and stimulated written report: immediate retrospective account of strategy use. For the last instrument, the researcher encouraged the participant to write in what strategies they used in their test with reasons. The result revealed that the most popular strategy was guessing the meaning of unknown words by using context clues. Most students employed strategies more often during the test than during and before the test. The written report added more information that there was a little difference in the quantity of strategies used by high and low English proficiency

students under different test task conditions but greatly in the frequency of the preference ones they employed.

Besides this, Barta (2010) implemented the verbal report methodology to examine what listening comprehension sub-skills and strategies can be identified in test taker's thought processes during the task-solving procedure. This study was conducted with four Hungarian students for a pilot of the coding scheme and ten students for formulating the coding scheme. The study followed three main procedures of verbal reports: data collection, coding scheme development and coding scheme analysis. The study summarized that there were 27 categories of mental acts divided into two main topics: language competence and strategic competence. The methodology of retrospective interview provides the richest data to support two main statements of Vandergrift (1999) and Alderson and Banerjee (2002): 'listening is hard work and deserves more analysis and support', and 'the assessment of listening abilities is one of the least understood, least developed and yet one of the most important area of language testing', respectively.

Interestingly, Imura (2011) paid more attention on the effects of format difference on strategy use in multiple-choice listening tests. The immediate retrospective verbalization was selected as the main instrument to interview English-major students of various English proficiency levels at a private university in Ibaraki, Japan. The result showed that listening proficiency affected test-takers' strategy use, especially in the metacognitive (e.g. comprehension monitoring, performance evaluation, and problem identification), cognitive (e.g. creative elaboration), and test-taking strategies (skipping and matching the option with text). It also revealed that regardless of listening proficiency, test-takers used different strategies to deal with the test formats in terms of selective attention (metacognitive), note-taking (cognitive), and clues in the text (test-taking).

Conclusion

It is undeniable that the use of linguistic knowledge, non-linguistic knowledge and test-taking knowledge play a crucial role in comprehending the listening input, which is in special concern in the area of language testing. Cohen's test-taking strategies provide the clear definition and explicit combination of three major components including language learner strategies, test-management strategies, and test-wiseness strategies as the framework of qualitative data. The reason why test-taking strategies become an acceptable source in validating a test is only product-based approaches are not enough for test validation. Cohen (1998, cited in Kashkouli, Barati & Nejad Ansari, 2015) mentioned "while there is nothing new in pointing out that certain instruments used in SLA research are lacking in validity, it is a relatively new undertaking to use data on test on test taking strategies to validate such tests" (p. 62). He also gave a caution that the test-takers may use test-wiseness to overcome some difficulties, particularly by using other sources of knowledge unrelated to the test construct. That means, a test-taker may not read the text as instructed and simply select one of its multiple choices for answer. Therefore, the key point of Cohen's framework is the reported use of listening strategies constitute evidence in support of the claims that the test measures whereas reported use of test-taking strategies constitute evidence in support of the counterclaim (Anderson et al., 1991, cited in Bachman, 2004). Cohen's framework leads other studies to the insights of the following issues (Cohen, 2012, p.97):

- Test takers' versus raters' understanding of and responses to integrated language tasks;
- The impact of using authentic versus inauthentic texts in reading tests;
- Low-level versus higher-level processing on a test;
- The more effective strategies for success on tests as well as the least effective ones;
- The items on a test that would be susceptible to the use of test-wiseness strategies

CHAPTER III

Research Methodology

This chapter mainly depicts the research methodology including research samples, research instruments with their process of development and validation, data collection, and data analysis in order to reach the objectives of the study.

3.1 Target population

The target population of the study was 166 third-year undergraduate students who enrolled the English for Communication Arts (CA 207) course in the first semester of the 2015 academic year at Dhurakij Pundit University. The English for Communication Arts (CA 207) course put an emphasis on practice in English listening, speaking, reading and writing skills from mass communication materials as well as assignments and out of class activities relevant to the following topics: radio, magazine, TV program, film, advertising, email, interview, job hunting, and newspapers. The course syllabus of the CA 207 course is illustrated in appendix A.

Regarding the course description, students are expected to communicate effectively with other foreign people in the particular content and vocabularies, associated with Communication Arts, and also to appropriately access, share, or exchange some specific information through public media channels for their future occupation. The CA 207 has been taught by non-inner circle English teachers from the local areas of Thailand by using English as the language medium of instruction. The listening materials for teaching and learning were mostly spoken by Inner-Circle English speakers, namely British people and Americans.

Before making decision to enroll the CA 207 course, all of these third-year students must pass two prerequisite fundamental English courses: English 1 (LA 101) and English 2 (LA 102). These two courses focused on four basic English skills: listening,

reading, writing, and speaking and were taught by Thai and Filipino teachers who used English as the medium of instruction as well.

3.2 Research samples

Eighty research participants were purposively selected from the target population in the study, who were homogeneous in terms of nationality, age, culture, and academic interest. According to the demographic data, the participants of the study were Thai students at the age of 19-20 who studied in the same faculty at the same university. All of them had no experience in native English speaking countries and mainly listened to English in class with attention. To study in the CA course, the participants must pass two prerequisite English courses: LA 101 and LA 102. Regarding their average grade of those fundamental courses, they were divided into two different English proficiency levels: high and low EFL achiever groups. The following was the description of obtaining the number of research samples:

- 1) At the beginning of the semester, the target population was divided into four sections (01, 02, 03, and 04).
- 2) To achieve the study objective, the students in each section was firstly categorized into three groups: high English achievers (grade A and B+), mid English achievers (grade C+ and C), and low English achievers (grade D+ and D) based on the positive correlation coefficient between two sets of the total average scores from two fundamental English courses: English 1 and English 2 at $r = +.81$.
- 3) After that, regarding z score on the normal distribution curve of the total average scores, the high English achievers were chosen from the z scores of +1 while the low English achievers were in the z scores of -1. As the result, 53 students in Section 1 were divided into two groups: 11 high English achievers and 12 low English achievers. In the same process as Section 1, students in Section 2, 3, and 4 were divided into two groups as follows: 49 students in Section 2 were classified into 10 high English achievers and 14 low English achievers; 37 and 27 students in the section 3 and 4 were grouped into 11 and

7 high English achievers and 9 and 6 low English achievers, respectively. The mid English achievers of each section who received the average score around 60-69 at C to C+ grade were excluded from the study.

- 4) In total, 39 students who got the average scores around 70 to 92 (B to A grade) were in the group of high English achievers while 41 students who gained the average score around 50-59 (D to D+ grade) were in the group of low English achievers.

Figure 3 showed the process of classifying the research population into the purposive groups of high and low EFL achievers.

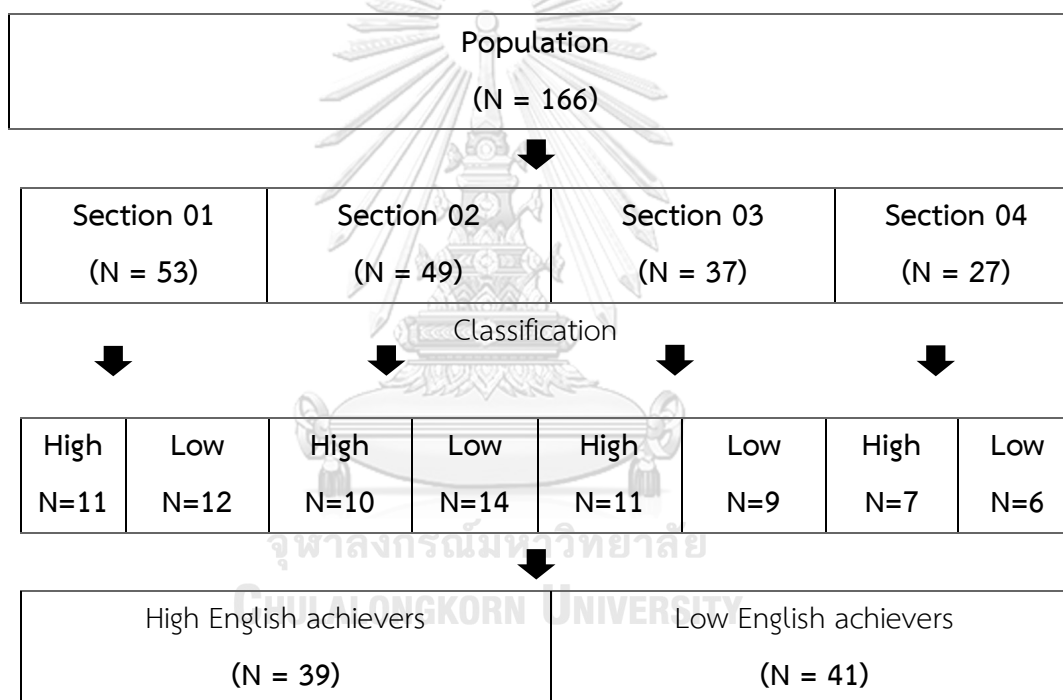


Figure 3 Purposive Stratification of the research population

With regard to the determination of the sample size, Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2011) claimed the statistical sample of the traditional guideline of experimental research should be at least 30. Under the aspect of generalizability of the findings, the larger the number of samples is, the more likely it is to represent the population. Based on these claims, the total number of the research participants was 80, consisting

of 39 high and 41 low English achievers, appropriately employed in statistic calculation for the study.

3.3 Research Instruments

Three main instruments were implemented in this study: an English listening comprehension test, two sets of five-point Likert Scale questionnaires (one on English accented speech; and another on test-taking strategies), and a retrospective semi-structured interview.

3.3.1 An English listening comprehension test

A 48-multiple-choice item English listening comprehension test was designed as an achievement test by the researcher as shown in Appendix B. It had two functions: the pre-test and the post-test. The first function was the pre-listening test whose score result allowed the researcher to investigate the effect of English accented speeches, representing World Englishes on listening comprehension. Each listening text was spoken by four different English accented speakers: American-English, Indian-English, Chinese-English, and Thai-English and was controlled by length, text readability indices, and speech rate. The second function of the listening comprehension was the post-listening test. This allowed the researcher to examine the effect of text specificity relevant and irrelevant to the CA 207 course on the listening comprehension of high and low EFL learners. Put another way, it aimed to assess and elicit students' listening performance aligning with the objective of the CA course and the research study.

3.3.1.1 The selection of the test speakers

The selection of English accented speakers was based on the 2015 statistics of the United Nations' most populated countries in the world as follows:

Table 3

The top three world populated countries in 2015 by the United Nations

Rank	Country	Number of population	Male	Female
1 st	China	1,369,811,000	51.8%	48.2%
2 nd	India	1,267,402,000	51.7%	48.2%
3 rd	United States	319,020,000	49.2%	50.8%

Table 3 showed that China had the most population of the world population, followed by India and America. As noticed, China and India contained little higher males than females except in America. That means people around the world had the high probability to meet or communicate with either men or women from these three countries. Regarding Kachru's definitions of World Englishes, Chinese-English accents are grouped in the expanding circle country whose people were born in China and speak English as a foreign language. Indian-English accents derive from people who were born in India, one of the outer-circle English countries and speak English as the second language whereas American-English accents should be originated from the United States of America, one of the inner-circle English countries where people speak English as the native language. Thai-English accents was also included as the listening input because it is the local English accent in the housing residence of all research participants.

3.3.1.2 The qualification of the test speakers

To respond with the aforementioned definitions of World Englishes under the Kachruvian paradigm, four speakers in the listening test of the study must possess all of the following qualifications:

- (a) Genuine English accented speakers

In the study, four types of English accented speech: American-English, Indian-English, Chinese-English, and Thai-English were genuinely produced by speakers who

were born and studied English in their own country throughout their childhood period. Regarding the assumption of Murphy (2014), few non-native English speakers could possess native-like accented English speakers when they were born and studied English in their own countries during childhood. The sample of their genuine English accented speech was illustrated in the Appendix D. These four English accented speech were initially validated by two ENL teachers in terms of intelligibility and accentedness (Matsuura et al., 2014).

(b) Education level

Both ESL and EFL speakers graduated with at least the Bachelor's degree in the university and their accepted English as an international language proficiency level was at over 550 TOEFL PBT, or equivalent.

(c) Gender and age

They all were female at the age of 30 to 45 to minimize some extraneous factors. McKenzie (2008) suggested that male and female speakers of the same language variety might be judged differently by listeners.

(d) Working experience

Both ESL and EFL speakers have been working as an English teacher in their homeland for over 10 years while the ENL speaker has moved and worked as an English teacher in Thailand for nearly five years.

3.3.1.3 The assignment of the test speakers

Each speaker randomly choose the four sets of the scripts, comprising of two sets of questions with three response options and two sets of less-than-200-word passages before being invited to the sound laboratory of the Dhurakij Pundit University for audio recording. Each speaker's spoken script was exemplified in Appendix B. Regarding Buck (2001), to produce the effective listening stimuli of the test for EFL learners, the speakers should be asked to speak more little slowly but not unnaturally, and to pause more between their utterances. Therefore, the speech

rate of each speaker should be at approximately 120 words per minute (w/m) similar to the lecturing speed for foreign English language (EFL) learners.

3.3.1.4 The selection of the listening texts

Listening texts were carefully selected and controlled by the following main criteria: (1) text specificity and (2) text difficulty regarding the study of Jaturapitakkul (2007).

1. Text specificity

The degree of text specificity for assessing listening in the study was derived from the course lesson and teaching materials (Buck, 2001), covering the major topics of specific content knowledge, which was related and unrelated to the CA course.

In the study, the total number of the listening texts in the test was eight. The first four listening texts were randomly selected from the CA course materials and textbooks regarding the course syllabus while the rest of the listening texts was selected from the Business Laws course materials and textbooks. It was assumed that the research participants were unfamiliar with the later types of the content. If the test task includes a highly specific text relevant to what students have learnt, they might receive the high score on that task because of existing background knowledge. Conversely, if the test task contains a very specific text irrelevant to what the participants learnt, they might gain the low score on that task.

The specificity of these listening texts was also evaluated by three experts in the field of Communication Arts and by other three experts in the field of Business Administration.

2. Level of text difficulty

In the study, the degree of text difficulty was analyzed by readability text consensus tools and evaluated by three experts. Readability text consensus tools consisted of the Flesch Reading Ease formula, the Flesh-Kidcaid Grade Level, the Gunning Fog Formula, and SMOG grade. They served as the first stage of analyzing the ease of reading passages or listening texts in forms of an idealized 'average'

reader of a given age without the association of listening comprehension. After analyzing the listening texts, the Readability Formulae demonstrated the sentence length and vocabulary size of each text.

The following are the descriptions of each readability formula (Zamanian & Heydari, 2012):

a) The Flesch Reading Ease formula

The listening text can be graded into levels by Flesch Reading Ease formula whose score ranges from 0 to 100. That is, 0-30 scores is described as very difficult text and readable for college graduate, 30-40 scores is described as difficult text appropriate for college grade, 50-60 is leveled as fairly difficulty appropriate for 10th-12th grade, 60-70 is in the level of standard for 8th-9th grade, 70-100 is in the level of fairly easy to very easy, appropriate for 7th to 5th grade, respectively.

b) Gunning's Fog Index and SMOG grade (Simple Measure of Gobbledygook)

Regarding the calculation on the US grade level of a text, the Fog-Index formula and SMOG explicated each listening text's sentence length together with the number of 'hard' words, containing more than two syllables long. Unlike the previous formula, the difficult index is ranged from 13-17 readable for college students and 11-12 for college preparation whereas the easy one is between 6 and 9 appropriate for middle school level students.

Regarding Table 4, the average ease of readability in eight listening texts of the study was 58.7, identified as fairly difficulty by Flesch reading ease formula, and the average grade of the readability was 12.9 and 12.3, leveled for college students by Gunning's Fog Index and SMOG grade, respectively. The average of the sentence length was 12 and vocabulary size in each listening text was 182.

Table 4

The level of text difficulty in the listening comprehension test

Listening text no.	Flesh-Kincaid Reading ease	Gunning-Fog Score	SMOG Index	Word count	Sentence count
1	59.9	12.4	12.0	191	11
2	58.3	12.6	12.0	177	9
3	56.9	14.4	13.5	202	10
4	60.6	11.4	11.3	153	12
5	66.3	12.5	11.6	194	9
6	55.4	13.2	12.5	196	15
7	58.0	13.3	12.7	166	11
8	54.2	13.4	12.9	179	15
average	58.7	12.9	12.3	182	12

The feature of the listening comprehension test in the study was described in the test specification.

3.3.1.5 The specification of the listening comprehension test

a) Test takers:

The target was the third-year students from the faculty of Communication Arts who enrolled the English for Communication Arts (CA 207) course in the first semester of the 2015 academic year at Dhurakij Pundit University.

b) Purpose of the test:

This test is categorized as an achievement test which aims to measure how well students have mastered and understood the listening texts ir/relevant to the lessons of the CA 207 course spoken by the varieties of English accented speech.

c) Test construct

The test construct was adapted from the following components of the fundamental competence-based listening construct proposed by Buck (2001):

- Ability to distinguish the sound system, which is reflected in phonology, stress and intonation.
- Ability to understand local linguistic meanings, which is reflected in vocabulary and syntax
- Ability to understand full linguistic meanings, reflecting in discourse knowledge in longer texts e.g. separation of main point from details, structure of the discourse, and some specific information
- Ability to understand the communicative language, which is reflected in sociolinguistic knowledge e.g. varieties of English accented speech

d) Task types:

There were two major types of tasks playing a crucial role in measuring the listening performance: 1) question-response, and 2) long talks. The first task, question-response, emphasized the measurement on the test-takers' ability to understand a question and provide the correct response in the communication pattern. Additionally, this task also aimed to assess the ability to distinguish the sound of minimal pairs containing in one of three response options together with the ability to recognize the meaning of the technical words or terms relevant and irrelevant to the course through the communicative language. The final task, long talks, aimed to basically measure the capture of main ideas, specific information and to understand local literal meanings together with sequencing the events from the given listening texts.

Both types of the tasks attempted to stimulate test-takers into the recognition of the sociolinguistic words together with understanding the specific content related and unrelated to the topics of Communication Arts. Table 5 showed the relationship between listening task types and the test construct.

Table 5

Listening task types and the construct of listening test

Listening task types	The construct of listening achievement test
Part 1: Questions and Responses Listen to a question and choose the best answer, which responds to that given question.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Understand the technical terms - Distinguish the sounds of two words that are different - Understand the communicative language ability
Part 2: Long talks Listening to long talks and choose the best answer to each question.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Identify the main idea of each listening texts - Understand specific information of each listening text - Understand the structure of the discourse by making a sequence of events based on the listening text - Understand the global information about the context of each listening text (e.g. participants, speakers or settings)

e) Test response formats:

There were 48 question items, which were clearly and simply designed and written in forms of the selected response type, multiple choices with the maximum of four options along with the listening texts relevant and irrelevant to Communication Arts. The reasons of using the multiple-choice format are as follows: (a) it provided reliable scoring; (b) it minimizes the construct-irrelevant variance; (c) it reduces marking costs whereas other test formats like short answer questions and summary writing require scoring training; and (d) it does not involve much on other communicative skills like writing skill (Yanagawa & Green, 2008). Table 6 showed the relationship among text types, test response

formats and English accented speeches, designed to be the listening comprehension test.

Table 6

Relationship among text types, test response formats, specific content knowledge and English accented speeches

Text types	English accented speech			
	American	Indian	Chinese	Thai
Part A: question-response				
Communication Arts knowledge	2 questions with three response options	2 questions with three response options	2 questions with three response options	2 questions with three response options
Non-Communication Arts knowledge	2 questions with three response options	2 questions with three response options	2 questions with three response options	2 questions with three response options
Part B: Long talks				
Communication Arts knowledge	1 talk (4 MC questions)	1 talk (4 MC questions)	1 talk (4 MC questions)	1 talk (4 MC questions)
Non-Communication Arts knowledge	1 talk (4 MC questions)	1 talk (4 MC questions)	1 talk (4 MC questions)	1 talk (4 MC questions)

f) Listening texts:

In the study, the total number of the listening texts in the test was eight. The four listening texts were randomly selected from the CA course materials and

textbooks regarding the course syllabus whereas the rest was selected from business laws course materials and textbooks. Table 7 illustrated the relationship among the test items, topics, and test construct, designed for the listening comprehension test.

Table 7

The Listening comprehension test's listening constructs, topics, and test items

The construct of listening achievement test	Topics	Test item no.
Part 1: questions and responses		
1.1) Understand the technical terms and determine an appropriate response to the question	Magazine,	1, 14
	film,	2, 5, 6
	newspaper	9, 10
	radio	13
	business laws	4,8,12,16
1.2) Distinguish the differences of minimal pairs	Magazine,	1
	film,	5
	newspaper	9
	radio	13
	business laws	3, 7,11,15
Part 2: long talks		
2.1) Identify the main idea of each spoken text	Magazine	17
	Film	25
	Newspaper	33
	radio	41
	business laws	21, 29, 37, 45
2.2) Understand the structure of the discourse by making a sequence of events	Magazine	18
	Film	27
	Newspaper	35
	radio	42
	business laws	22, 30, 38, 47

2.3) Understand specific information of each spoken text	Magazine	19
	Film	26
	Newspaper	34
	radio	43
	business laws	23, 31, 39, 46
2.4) Understand inferred information about each spoken text (e.g. participants or settings)	Magazine	20
	Film	28
	Newspaper	36
	radio	44
	business laws	24, 32, 40, 48

g) Timing of the test

The time allotment of two main parts in the listening comprehension test: question-response and long talks are approximately 45 minutes.

Part 1: question-response (13 minutes)

There are 16 items in the part A and the test time last for approximately 13 minutes based on the procedure below:

1 min: Listen and read to the test instruction

12 mins: Listen to a question in each item and choose one of the best options compatible with the given question.

Part 2: Long talks (32 minutes)

There were 32 items and 8 listening texts in this part. The test time last for approximately 35 minutes based on the procedure below.

1 min: Listen and read to the test instruction and reviewing the test questions

31 mins: Listen to eight long lectures related and unrelated to the course lessons. Students have to read four questions for each listening text and choose the best answer.

3.3.1.6 The development and validation of the listening achievement test

Before receiving the aforementioned test specification for the main study, the systematic phases of developing the listening achievement test were accomplished in order to reach the objective of the course and the research study:

Phase 1: Designing the listening comprehension test and test specification

The listening comprehension test was designed by the researcher based partly on the course syllabus of CA 207 and the non-CA207 course syllabus. It firstly consisted of 52 question items under two main parts: 16 items in questions and responses, and 36 items for long talks. The listening comprehension test was illustrated in Appendix C. Because the focus of the Readability text consensus tools is limited by looking through only the surface of the listening texts e.g. the number and length of words and sentences, it is necessary to be supportive with three experts' evaluation on other major elements of such test texts, notably linguistic structure (e.g. use of lexis, syntax), contextual structure (e.g. purpose and audience, textual organization), conceptual structure (degree of familiar and unfamiliar text content), and listener-speaker relationship (Fulcher, 1997). That means, a group of three experts was individually asked to evaluate all these elements through the index of item-objective congruence form.

Phase 2: The validation of the listening comprehension test

Step 1: the first draft of the listening comprehension test

Before the CA 207 course team meeting, the 52-item listening comprehension test with the test specification was distributed to the teaching team for consideration through the test validation form (the index of item-objective congruence form). The teaching team of the CA 207 course consists of three teachers, acting as experts. One expert received the doctoral degree in the area of Communication Arts and other two graduated Master Degree in the area of applied linguistics who have had over 10-year teaching experience in this course. During the meeting, the discussion and comment on the 52-item listening comprehension test was made with proofreading and editing

in accordance with the index of item-objective congruence illustrated in Appendix E. The followings were a few useful comments from three experts:

The first comment was about the length of the spoken texts in part 2: long talks, which contained over 250 words, probably affecting the students' memory load. The experts recommended that each talk should be shorter.

Another comment was on the length of each multiple-choice option. The experts theoretically recommended that each option should be simply and concisely written. Students should not waste much time on reading the long options of each question item during listening.

Regarding the recommendation of three experts, the listening test was developed in terms of the length of the content, which was controlled less than 200 words and the options of each multiple-choice question, carefully simplified and shortened.

Step 2: pilot study

There were 55 volunteers from the middle-level English achievers of the CA course participating in taking the 52-item listening test. To ensure the quality of the test, the following measurements were employed:

1. Item analysis

1.1 Item difficulty index

The item difficulty index is derived from the total number of each item correct divided by the total number of volunteers. The acceptable difficulty level must not be less than .20 and not over than .80, especially for the classroom tests (Brown, 2004). When the difficulty level is in the range of less than .20, it can interpreted that the test items are in the very difficult level. If in the range of .21 to .40, the test items are in the difficult level. If in the range of .41 to .60, the test items are in the average level. If in the range of .61 to .80, the test items are in the easy level. When the difficulty level is in the range of greater than 81, it can interpreted that the test items are in the very easy level. However, the difficulty level of the test, designed along with the course objective, can be sometimes too high or too low in order to measure how effective students mastered the course content and apply knowledge in the real life situation (Carr, 2011).

1.2 Discrimination index

In the study, the discrimination index, estimating how effective each test item separates high masters from low masters, was derived from the point-biserial correlation coefficient. The discrimination index typically can be calculated from the subtraction between the total number of correct done by equal-sized high and that by low scoring groups and then divide by that proportion of high or low scoring groups. It is consequent that the ranges are from +1 (positive discrimination) to -1 (negative one). Any items with negative discrimination undermining the test were discarded while items with positive discrimination were flagged as good items in the test. Test items with zero, referring to no discriminating power, were revised for the main study (Birjandi et al., 2006; Brown, 2004). The point-biserial correlation coefficient, elaborating the discriminability value of a test item, demonstrated the correlation between item responses to a particular item and scores on the total test. The possible range of values for the point biserial correlation (rpbi) is +1 to -1. The higher the rpbi, the better the item is discriminating (Carr, 2011). To illustrate, if the range of the discriminability value of a test item is less than .19, it appears to be poor items. If in between .20 and .29, it appears to be fair items. If in between .30 and .39, it appears to be good items. If greater than .40, it appears to be very good items.

2. Reliability of the listening comprehension test: KR 21

The reliability of the listening comprehension test was calculated by Kuder-Richardson approach with the formula of KR 21, determining internal consistency. According to Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun (2012), KR 21 requires only three pieces of data: the number of test items which was scored right versus wrong, the mean, and the standard deviation. Under the formula KR-21, the difficulty of test items is assumed to be equal. They contended that the benchmark on the reliability estimate for scores on the classroom test should be at least .70 and preferably higher. However, if a coefficient appears .00, it indicates the complete absence of a relationship whereas 1.00 indicates the maximum possible coefficient.

Phase 3: The final version of the listening comprehension test

It is consequence that the listening comprehension test for the main study consists totally of 48 question items. According to the result of the pilot study's item analysis as illustrated in Appendix F, 4 question items were taken out from the listening test. That was because the question items no. 24, no. 32, no. 41, and no. 51 showed the negative discrimination index, and/or the excess difficulty index, interpreting as poor items.

Table 8 summarized the item analysis indices and reliability estimate of the listening test for the main study. It reported that the difficulty index of the listening comprehension items of the study was .50 in the average level and their point-biserial correlation was .28 as fair items and the reliability of coefficient (KR-21) of the listening test after revision is .75.

Table 8

Item analysis indices and reliability estimate of the listening test for the main study

Description	Range
Difficulty index	.50
Point-biserial correlation	.28
Reliability estimate (KR-21)	.75

3.3.2 Likert scale questionnaires

Two main sets of five-point Likert scale questionnaires were employed in the study: one concerning about the use of test-taking strategies as seen in Appendix G, and another on the attitude towards English accented speech as seen in Appendix J.

3.3.2.1 The description of the questionnaire on the use of test-taking strategies

a) The objective of the questionnaire

This questionnaire aimed to shed light on the use of test-taking strategies by high and low EFL achievers based on the framework of Cohen (2012).

b) Target respondents

The third-year university students who enrolled and studied the course of English for Communication Arts.

c) Format of questionnaire

The five-point Likert Scale questionnaire form was employed to reach the research objective, to reduce the participants' cognitive overload through the controlled processes, and to restrict some strategies the participants irrelevantly provided in order to enhance the validity of measures. Another main reason of using 5-point Likert scales is that the respondents are able to have chance to express various degree of sensitivity and differentiation of response instead of yes/no answers (Dornyei, 2007). Five attitudinal scales of Likert scales were exploited, starting from strong disagreement (1) to strong agreement (5). It is assumed that the test takers who have different English levels will expose their own test-taking strategies in distinct ways.

d) Language used:

The questionnaire was written into Thai, the first language of the research participants in order to prevent the misinterpretation of each statement in both set of questionnaire and to ensure their understanding to respond with the objective of the questionnaire.

e) Number of items:

There were 33 items in the questionnaire to associate with the construct of the questionnaire.

f) The construct of the questionnaire

The construct of this questionnaire was divided into three main parts based on the framework of Cohen (2012): listening strategies, test-management strategies, and test-wiseness strategies as follows:

Listening strategies

This strategy type refers to the way test-takers use their basic skills of listening to deal with the test content regarding the test construct. That means the test takers draw their repertoire of listening strategies to understand the spoken inputs through metacognitive, cognitive, and affective strategies. The main elements of the listening

strategy were adapted from Vandergrift (1997), and Goh (1998) regarding the construct of the listening comprehension test.

The metacognitive strategy firstly involves thinking about the way information is proceeded and stored through the following fundamental executive processes: pre-listening planning, while-listening monitoring and post-listening evaluating. The pre-listening planning stage focuses on the preparation to complete the task. During listening, test takers try to concentrate on which part of the text should be in focus such as listening to the gist or key words. This is called selective attention. On the contrary, when they try to maintain their listening to the whole text or listen closely to every words in spite of having problems, it is called directed attention. The while-listening monitoring refers to the process of checking, verifying, or correcting how well they understand the input during listening. The post-listening evaluation stage involves with the process of judging overall execution of the task, judging the test takers' strategy use, and identifying an aspect of the listening task that hinders their successful completion after listening.

The cognitive strategy, secondly, involves the mental process which directly manipulates or transforms the incoming information to accomplish the tasks. The strategies fundamentally consist of inferencing (guessing the meaning or using known words to fill in missing information), elaborating (referring to prior experience, using academic knowledge, or using the combination of questioning and world knowledge to brainstorm logical possibilities and fill in missing information), translation (translating the spoken inputs into the test-takers' first language), note taking (writing down the key words or concepts to complete the task), summarization (synthesizing what is heard), and reconstruction (using words from the text to construct the meaning of the text).

At last, the affective strategy involves the way to control the affective state like lowering the anxiety in the listening test, motivating themselves with some positive self-talk, expressing some negative emotion when encountering some difficulties.

Test-management strategies

This strategy refers to the way test-takers consciously respond to test items and test tasks in the meaningful way in association with the construct of the listening test. Examples of this strategy include eliminating, comparing, and crosschecking some options that are unrelated to the input texts or the given passages based on the construct of the test (Cohen, 2012). Even though this type of strategy does not directly involve using a certain language, it provides indirectly support for taking a test to select the most appropriate answer.

Test-wiseness strategies

The test-wiseness strategies refer to the way test takers use the knowledge of test formats, especially multiple-choice items or other information to answer test items without using their expected linguistic or cognitive processes or knowledge of the subject matter being tested. They are strategies that permits a test-taker to implement the characteristics and forms of tests and/or test taking situation rather than language use strategies to increase the test score no matter what the content area of a test is, as well as using clues from other test items to answer an item under consideration, selecting the option that appears to have a word or a phrase from the listening text, or even selecting an option without understanding the listening text (Cohen, 2012). Table 9 showed the relationship between the construct of the questionnaire and the questionnaire items.

Table 9

The construct of test-taking strategies and the questionnaire item

The construct	description	Item no.
1. Listening strategies (1-19 items)	1.1 Metacognitive strategies	
	a) Pre-listening planning	2-3
	b) Directed attention	4-5
	c) Selective attention	6-7
	d) While-listening Monitoring	18
	e) Post-listening evaluation	19
	1.2 Cognitive strategies	
	a) Inferencing	8-9
	b) Elaboration	10-12
	c) Translation	13-14
	d) note-taking	15
	e) summarization	16
	f) reconstruction	17
	1.3 Affective strategies	1
2. Test-management strategies	Selecting the best answer with the expected linguistic and cognitive knowledge	20-30
3. Test-wisness strategies	Selecting the best answer with the knowledge of test formats	31-33

3.3.2.2 Development of the questionnaire on the use of test-taking strategies

In this study, the questionnaire was developed with the guideline of Phakiti (2014) as follows:

The 1st phase:

Three experts were asked to evaluate the construct and content of the questionnaire in the Item-Objective Congruence form as illustrated in the appendix H. Then, the questionnaire was revised based on the experts' comment.

The 2nd phase:

Fifty-five research respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire. They were allowed to ask the researchers some unclear statements or some difficulty to complete the answer. The piloting questionnaire data was analyzed by Cronbach's alpha (reliability of items not scored right versus wrong) to check the internal consistency of the researcher instruments (Fraenkel et al., 2012). A reliability estimate of a questionnaire can range from 0 (0% reliable) to 1 (100% reliable). Dornyei (2007) recommended that a reliability coefficient of 0.70 or above is acceptable for research. For the main study, a reliability estimate of a questionnaire was at 0.918.

3.3.2.3 The description of the attitudinal questionnaire on English-accented speeches

The following is the description of the attitudinal questionnaire towards English accented speech:

a) The objective of the questionnaire:

This questionnaire was designed to study the attitudes of high and low EFL achievers towards four different varieties of English accented speeches: American-English, Indian-English, Chinese-English, and Thai-English.

b) Target respondents:

The third-year university students who enrolled and studied the course of English for Communication Arts.

c) Format of questionnaire:

The five-point Likert Scale format was employed with the aforementioned reasons in the description of the questionnaire on the use of test-taking strategies.

d) Language used:

The questionnaire was written in Thai with the same reasons aforementioned on the description of the questionnaire on the use of test-taking strategies.

e) Number of items:

There were 19 items in the questionnaire which was designed with the construct of the language attitude.

f) The construct of the language attitude:

The following are the construct of the language attitude, adapted from the previous studies of Hiraga (2005); Xu, Wang, and Case (2010); W. Zhang and Hu (2008) Abeywickrama (2013); and Hamid (2014) related to perceptual judgment of listeners on English accented speech.

Personness trait:

The personness trait refers to the personality or social identification speakers presented through their English-accented speech under the viewpoint of the listeners. There are six descriptive items under two main areas based on the study of Hiraga (2005) and Xu et al. (2010). That is, intelligent, educated, and elegant are under social status; reliable, friendly, and sincere are under social attractiveness.

Communicability trait:

The communicability trait refers to the characteristic of English-accented speech that speakers passed on the information or communicate with to other people based on the viewpoint of the listeners. There are seven descriptive items under this trait in the study: intelligibility, proper intonation, fluency, clearness, accentedness, credibility, and pleasantness of listening. These were adapted from the study of W. Zhang and Hu (2008), Xu et al. (2010), and Abeywickrama (2013). Murphy (2014) claimed that intelligibility refers to the degree of effort paid by listeners to understand the meaning of the word uttered by native and non-native English speakers in its given

context whereas the credibility means the degree of acceptance listeners aspire to be one kind of the spoken models.

Testing potentiality trait:

Testing potentiality trait refers to the possibility of the English-accented speech varieties developed as the listening input in the listening test under the viewpoint of the test-takers. There are five descriptive items under this trait in the study: familiarity, acceptance, advantage, anxiety, and test inclusion. These were adapted from the study of Hamid (2014), raising the the test takers' awareness of using World Englishes varieties in the test. Table 10 showed the relationship between the construction of attitudinal questionnaire and the questionnaire items.

Awareness of English accented speech:

Awareness of English accented speech refers to the way listeners can identify the original country speakers were born or raised in association with the English accented speeches these speaker uttered.

Table 10

The construct of attitudinal questionnaire and questionnaire items

	The construct	Description	Item no.
1.	personness	Intelligent	1
		Educated	2
		Elegant	3
		Reliable	4
		Friendly	5
		Sincere	6
2.	communicability	Intelligible	7
		Fluent	8
		Clear	9
		Proper intonation	10
		Pleasant to listen to	11
		Credible	12
		Spoken as the first language	13
3.	testing potentiality	anxious	14
		familiar	15
		advantageous	16
		included in the test	17
		accepted for the test	18
4.	Awareness of English accented speech	Identification of original place	19

3.3.2.4 Development of the attitudinal questionnaire on English-accented speeches

The 1st phase: designing the questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to achieve the objective of the study research no.5 and the construct of the questionnaire was based on the previous studies of Hiraga (2005); Xu et al. (2010); W. Zhang and Hu (2008); Abeywickrama (2013); and Hamid (2014).

The 2nd phase: validation of the questionnaire

Three experts were asked to evaluate the construct and the content of the questionnaire in the Item-Objective Congruence form as illustrated in Appendix K. Then, the questionnaire was revised based on the experts' comment.

The 3rd phase:

55 students who had the similar characteristics to the research respondents were voluntarily asked to complete the questionnaire. They were allowed to ask the researcher some unclear statements or some difficulty to complete the answer. The questionnaire was written in Thai, the first language of the students.

The final phase:

The piloting questionnaire data was analyzed by Cronbach's alpha (reliability of items not scored right versus wrong) to check the internal consistency of the research instruments (Fraenkel et al., 2012). A reliability estimate of a questionnaire can range from 0 (0% reliable) to 1 (100% reliable). Dörnyei (2007) recommended that a reliability coefficient of 0.70 or above is acceptable for research. In the study, the reliability estimate of a questionnaire is at 0.956. Consequently, the questionnaire was used in the main study.

3.3.3 Retrospective semi-structured interview

The retrospective semi-structured interview, one of three research instruments, was employed one week after the research participants finished completing the questionnaire as well as taking the listening comprehension test. The main reason of implementing the retrospective interview in the study was to elicit more in-depth

details of using the test-taking strategies. It, additionally, did not disturb the participants or increase the participants' work load during taking a listening test. The following is the description of the retrospective semi-structured interview:

a) Objective of the interview

This kind of interview was served as the means of discovering further information about the implementation of test-taking strategies from the research participants together with eliciting the in-depth details from the outcome of the questionnaire.

b) Target respondents:

Ten of them were randomly selected from the high EFL level group of the study and the other ten test takers were also randomly selected from the low EFL level group. The total number of interview respondents was 20 out of 80 research participants. The interviews were conducted in pairs, drawn from the same proficiency level and were audio recorded with the participants' consent. The main reasons of conducting the pair interview was reducing the anxiety during the interview and gaining more explicit information. However, its main obstacle was the interference of one's report in another's (Green, 1998). To protect this kind of event, before the interview started, the researcher put attempt to make the interviewees clear with the purpose of the interview and the benefit of their own report, assisting them to evaluate their own strength and weakness of the listening skill in order to reach the achievement of English listening skill. Additionally, to gain their own cognitive process, during the interview, the researcher provided the equal opportunities for each member of the pair to initially start answering the given open-ended questions.

c) Language of interview:

These participants were interviewed and asked to verbalize their thought process in Thai language because all of them are native Thai speakers.

d) Format of questions for interview

Two main open-ended questions: (1) what strategy do you use to understand the spoken text?, and (2) what strategy do you use to help you choose the best answer/option in the test?, were employed in the interview. Mill and Gay (2016) posited that the open-ended questions provide more opportunities for respondents to elaborate the detailed response on the use of test-taking strategies in ways unanticipated. However, to guide students to provide more explicit information, some additional questions were exploited when some long pause or some missing key points of the interview emerged (as seen in Appendix I).

e) The construct of the interview

The construct of this interview was based on the framework of Cohen (2012), similar to the construct of the questionnaire on the use of test-taking strategies: listening strategies, test management strategies and test wiseness strategies as shown in Table 11.

Table 11

The construct of test-taking strategies and the open-ended questions

Construct	Questions
Listening strategies	a) What strategy do you use to understand the spoken text?
Test-management and test wiseness strategies	b) What strategy do you use to help you choose the best answer/option in the test?

f) Time allotment:

The average time for the interview of each individual or pair was around 20-30 minutes.

g) Development of retrospective semi-structured interviewing questions:

After the interview questions were designed and validated by three experts, the pilot study commenced. 5 out of 55 test takers from a piloting group who

shared the similar characteristic with the research participants were voluntarily selected and asked for interview in order to gain some feedback whether the questions were comprehensible for them and reachable to the objective set for the use of test-taking strategies.

3.4 Data collection

The following are three major phases of collecting the data:

Phase 1: Pre-listening comprehension test and attitudinal questionnaire

A consent form (as shown in the appendix L) was firstly distributed to the research participants in the classroom for the agreement to participate in the study on the condition of anonymity as shown at the third week of the first semester in 2015 academic year. Simultaneously, participants were oriented to the purpose of the study and the feature of three main research instruments: the listening comprehension test, the attitudinal questionnaires, and interview together with the procedure and confidentiality protection of the individual result from these three instruments. Then, in the next session, the participants were asked to take the pre-listening test, which had already validated through the systematic process of test validation in the pilot study. After finishing listening to each listening text, the participants were asked to evaluate each speaker's English accented speech by completing the attitudinal questionnaire within the appropriate time allotment. Finally, the pre-listening test with the answer sheet and the attitudinal questionnaire were collected by the researcher.

Phase 2: Post-listening comprehension test and test-taking strategy questionnaire

In the thirteenth week of the course, the participants were asked to take the post-listening comprehension test in the classroom. After finishing the listening test, they were asked to complete the questionnaire on the test-taking strategies.

Phase 3: Retrospective semi-structured interview

This type of interview was conducted one week after the end of the post-listening test through the systematic procedure of thinking aloud. In the fourteenth week of the course, ten students from one study group of high EFL achievers and another ten students from the group of low EFL achievers were voluntarily selected

and asked to participate in the retrospective interview under the condition of anonymity. Data collection took place in the private room of the university library with the quiet environment within approximately 20-30 minutes. Because the procedure of the interview was time consuming, pair interview was exploited. The private appointment for each pair of the participants in the same English proficiency level was assumed to provide the opportunity to express their ideas freely without interference or disturbance from other participants in different English proficiency levels.

Before the interview, the interviewees were oriented towards the purpose of this interview and the think-aloud procedure was explained. One practice sample of thinking aloud (e.g. simple mathematic calculation) was presented for interviewees to ensure that they understand its procedure. The interviewer asked the interviewees the permission for audio recording during their think-aloud report.

Then, the interviewer asked the interviewees two open-ended questions related to Cohen's test-taking strategies. The interview questions were assumed to be the guidelines for the interviewees to elicit meaningfully the process of comprehending the listening text and completing the listening comprehension test task. Because all participants are native Thai speakers, they were allowed to verbalize their thought process in Thai language in order to guarantee the unhindered expression of their ideas.

At the end of the interview, the interviewer thanked the interviewees for their time and effort together with providing some feedback on their test score related to their listening proficiency skills and strategies. They also were financially compensated for their participating time.

3.5 Data Analysis

Five main questions of the study were analyzed by the different statistical methods as follows:

- a) The one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) with repeated measures was employed to analyze the scores of the pre-listening test produced by each speaker in order to prove the first hypothesis.

- b) The paired sample t-test was used to analyze the scores of each proficiency level group from the pre-and post-listening tests in order to test the second hypothesis.
- c) The one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) with repeated measures was employed to compare the mean ratings between high and low EFL achievers from 5-point Likert scales of the test-taking strategy questionnaire. The rank of the mean score under three main subcategories of the test-taking strategies was also presented by the descriptive statistic in order to accomplish the third research question.

Furthermore, to orchestrate more information and confirm both high and low EFL achievers' use of test-taking strategies in the questionnaire, the retrospective semi-structured interviews was analyzed through the following stages of Mill and Gay (2016):

1. After the interviewing completed, all tape recordings of 20 respondents' verbal reports were transcribed word by word. Several strategies could expectedly be uttered by each respondent.
2. These useful and valid utterances abstracted from the tape recordings were listed and segmented in the attentive way into the sub-skill or sub-strategic categories under the main framework of Cohen's (2012) test-taking strategies. For example, one verbal report, 'I try to listen to the entire text even though I don't understand much', was categorized under the issue of listening strategies, referenced with its definition provided by Vandergrift (1997), and Goh (1998). Then, this report was further sub-grouped into the directed attention, one sub-category of listening strategies. If some verbal reports were irrelevant to the aspects of the test-taking strategies, they were eliminated after carefully analysis.
3. After the multistage process of organizing, categorizing, synthesizing, and analyzing on the the segmented protocol corpus from both high and low EFL achievers, the proof of the agreed-on categories was analyzed by the intra-coder reliability. The researcher first coded the list of segmented data into the appropriate categories and put the result of this coding aside for

five months. After that, she coded the data again through the process of modifying, splitting, or merging on some vague descriptions or redundant details regarding the description of each test-taking strategy. Cohen's Kappa (K) is .787, representing the strength of agreement at $p=.000$ or $p<.0005$. The Kappa coefficient is statistically different from zero.

4. The complete qualitative data was finally structured and reported into the appropriate sub-categories of the test-taking strategies. In this case, several strategies might be reported by the same respondent.
- d) Person Product Moment Correlations was used to analyze the relationship among the scores of the listening test produced by each speaker, the score difference between the pre-and post-listening test, and the mean ratings on 5-point Likert scale on the use of test-taking strategies in order to prove the fourth hypothesis.
 - e) One way ANOVA with repeated measures was employed to answer the fifth question.

Assumption of Inferential Statistics

Before performing some types of inferential statistics: a paired samples t test and ANOVA, the following assumptions must be examined in order to assess the quality of the results (as illustrated in Appendix L):

Assumption 1: The dependent variable

It should be measured at the interval or ratio levels. For example, the dependent variable of the study was the score of the listening comprehension of high and low EFL achievers.

Assumption 2: The independent variable

At least two categorical groups should be included in the analysis. For example, the independent variables of the study were English-accented speeches (e.g. American-English, Indian-English, Chinese-English, and Thai-English), specific content knowledge (e.g. CA and Non-CA), and test taking strategies (e.g. listening strategies, test management strategies, and test wiseness strategies)

Assumption 3: The normal distribution

Each dependent variable should be in the normal distribution, which was measured by the Shapiro-Wilk test. If the result has the p-value at less than .05 alpha level, the population was not normally distributed. Under this circumstance, the other evidence on the histogram and normal probability (Q-Q) plot can be used for another judgment. If the histogram is likely to be in the bell shape and the normal probability (Q-Q) plot lies approximately on the straight line. This can show the dependent variables are satisfied.

Assumption 4: The absence of outliers

The presence of outliers, single data points within the set of data, should not be shown in the boxplot. The usual pattern of the data should be shown to maximize the accuracy of the results. There should be no significant outliers in the boxplot.

Assumption 5: The variances of the differences

For a one-way ANOVA with repeated measures, Mauchly's test of sphericity can be used to observe the equality of the variances of the differences. The assumption of *Mauchly's Test of Sphericity* should not be violated as the p-value is greater than .05. That means the relationship between the different pairs of the dependent variables is similar.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The chapter mainly reports the results of the study together with the discussions from the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data regarding the five research questions of the study.

4.1 The effect of English accented speeches on listening comprehension

4.1.1 The result of the research question 1

Research question 1: To what extent do different English accents affect the listening comprehension ability test scores of high and low English achievers?

Based on the first research question, its hypothesis (see $H_{1.1}$ and $H_{1.2}$) is that there are differences of listening ability test scores of high and low English achievers affected by English accented speech at the .05 level.

$$H_0: \mu_{Am} = \mu_{In} = \mu_{Ch} = \mu_{Th}$$

$$H_{1.1}: \mu_{H_Am} \neq \mu_{H_In} \neq \mu_{H_Ch} \neq \mu_{H_Th}, \alpha = 0.05$$

$$H_{1.2}: \mu_{L_Am} \neq \mu_{L_In} \neq \mu_{L_Ch} \neq \mu_{L_Th}, \alpha = 0.05$$

To test the null hypothesis (H_0) indicating that there was no difference among the listening test score affected by four types of English accented speeches, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) with repeated measures was employed. If the analysis result rejects H_0 , that means some varieties of English accented speeches affect listening comprehension scores of both high and low English achievers.

Table 12

Descriptive data on listening comprehension scores affected by English accented speeches

English accented speech	EFL achievers	N	Mean (M)	SD	Min	Max
American (AmE)	High	39	6.23	1.99	2	10
	Low	41	3.95	1.67	1	8
Indian (InE)	High	39	5.54	1.83	1	9
	Low	41	3.76	1.71	0	8
Chinese (ChE)	High	39	5.77	1.63	3	9
	Low	41	4.44	1.84	0	9
Thai (ThE)	High	39	7.26	2.14	4	12
	Low	41	4.53	1.94	1	9

Notes. The full score of each is 12.

Table 12 showed the descriptive data on the listening comprehension scores of both high and low EFL achievers affected by English accented speeches. For the high EFL achievers, the highest mean score of listening comprehension was on Thai-English accented speech ($M = 7.26$, $SD = 2.14$), followed by American English ($M = 6.23$, $SD = 1.99$), Chinese English ($M = 5.77$, $SD = 1.63$), and Indian English ($M = 5.54$, $SD = 1.83$). For the low EFL achievers, the highest mean scores of listening comprehension was on Thai-English accented speech ($M = 4.53$, $SD = 1.94$), followed by Chinese English ($M = 4.44$, $SD = 1.84$), American English ($M = 3.95$, $SD = 1.67$), and Indian English ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 1.71$).

Table 13

One-way repeated ANOVA on the effect of English-accented speeches on listening comprehension

Source	EFL achievers	df	MS	F	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
English accented speech	High	3	22.62	7.05	.00*	.156
	Low	3	5.82	2.19	.09	.052
Error (English accented speech)	High	114	3.21			
	Low	120	2.67			

Notes. *the mean difference is significant at less than .05 level.

Regarding Table 13, the results of the one-way repeated-measures ANOVA showed that there was a significant main effect of English accented speeches on listening comprehension by high EFL achievers ($F(3,114) = 7.05, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .16$). On the other hand, there was no significant differences of the low EFL achievers' listening comprehension scores affected by four different varieties of English accented speech at $F(3,120) = 2.19, p = .09, \eta_p^2 = .05$. It is worth pointing that the assumption of Mauchly's Test of Sphericity (as detailed in Appendix M) was met, $\chi^2(5) = 2.96, p = .71$ for the high EFL achievers and $\chi^2(5) = 3.14, p = .68$ for the low EFL achievers.

Table 14

Pairwise comparisons among English accented speeches by high EFL achievers

English accented speech		Mean diff.	SE	p	95% confident interval for difference	
(1)	(2)				Lower bound	Upper bound
Thai	Am	1.03	.41	.10	-.12	2.17
	In	1.49	.45	.01*	.23	2.74
	Ch	1.72	.40	.00*	.60	2.84
Am	In	.69	.40	.56	-.43	1.81
	Ch	.46	.41	1.00	-.67	1.59
In	Ch	-.23	.36	1.00	-1.23	.76

Notes. *the mean difference is significant at less than .05 level.

Regarding Table 14, Bonferroni post hoc showed that by high EFL achievers, Thai-English accented speech had the statistically significant impact on listening comprehension when compared to Indian-English (mean = 5.54; SD = 1.83) and Chinese-English accented speech (mean = 5.77; SD = 1.63) at $p < .05$. However, there was no significant difference between Thai English and American English (mean = 6.23; SD = 1.99) at $p < .05$. Furthermore, no other pairs of English-accented speeches showed the statistically significant difference to each other at the p-value level of .05. Specifically, the findings suggest that the high EFL achievers can easily gain the higher score on listening comprehension spoken by Thai-English and American-English accented speakers than the other two English accented speakers.

Overall, the evidence partly supports the first hypothesis. That means there was a significant difference among English accented speeches on listening comprehension by the high EFL achievers whereas there was no significant difference among English accented speeches on listening comprehension by low EFL achievers. It is worth pointing out that Thai-English accented speech influences the listening comprehension by both high and low EFL achievers based on the descriptive data.

4.1.2 Discussion of the research question no. 1

The result of the research question no. 1 revealed that there was the significant effect of English accented speeches on listening comprehension of high EFL achievers but not on that of low EFL achievers. Although there was no significant difference of low EFL achievers' listening comprehension scores affected by English accented speeches, the highest mean score they received was on the Thai-English accented speech. More speaking, Thai-English and American-English accented speeches were more likely to help the high and low EFL achiever comprehend the listening texts than Indian English and Chinese English.

The main reason of this result is the familiarity of the L1-shared English accented speech in classroom and Inner Circle English speeches in the class materials. That is, all participants in the study regularly attended the English for Communication Arts course in classroom, taught mainly by the local Thai teachers who speak English as the medium of instruction through the entire four months of the course. Besides this, teaching and learning materials were taken from the norm providers' sources, especially the aural recording spoken by Inner-Circle English speakers. Therefore, it is inevitable that Thai students in this course gradually grew more accustomed to these types of English-accented speech: Thai English and American English.

Under the Thai context, the result of the study was consistent with the study of Suppatkul (2009) who found that Thai English and American English made Thai learners' listening test score significantly higher than Filipino English accented speech. Additionally, the result of the study is likely to be similar with Boonyarattapan (2006) who discovered that using different varieties of English accented speeches, especially Inner-Circle English, had a significant effect on the test takers' listening comprehension score. In her study, however, Thai-English accented speech was excluded so her result was a bit different from the current one and her study also recommended that the further study should pay more attention on Indian English, assumed that it is unfamiliar to Thai students, found in the current study. This is also supported by the claim of Buck (2001) that the unfamiliarity of particular English accented speeches, one

important variable of the listening comprehension, can make the spoken text's understanding almost impossible for the listener.

More broadly under the EFL context, the result of the current study was in line with Moinzadeh, Rezaei, and Dezhara (2012). They found that through the listening comprehension test, spoken by two main speakers with American-English and Persian-English speeches, Iranian test takers performed significantly better on the Persian-English listening test than that of American English. Additionally, the result of the study was also supported by the study of Harding (2011), revealing that through a differential item functioning, test takers who shared the speaker's L1 (e.g. Mandarin English, and Japanese English) on listening comprehension gained the higher scores than those in the equal-level ability who did not. Barlow (2009) also found that the United Arab Emirates undergraduates gained the similar listening comprehension scores on between American English and the L1-shared English speech (Arab). The reason behind this was taken from Field (2008) that listeners may understand the speakers of their own language sometimes better than native English speakers.

As it was mentioned in the literature, the contradictory result was also found. Abeywickrama (2013) indicated no significant effect of the speakers' L1 on test taker's L1 in the listening comprehension test and also no significant difference between an Inner Circle English (American English) speech and the non-Inner-Circle English speeches (e.g. Chinese English, Sri Lankan English, and Korean English) on the mean listening performance of test takers. It can be discussed in terms of the methodology of the current study, which was different from that of her study in some specific ways. For example, in terms of the research participants, she drew two contexts of English models in both EFL and ESL which was not illustrated the absolute homogeneity of the participants, especially on the English environment and the purpose of further study abroad which most of her participants aimed to. These led them to increase more emphasis on the practice of taking the international English proficiency tests. Another different point intriguingly found from her result was that Korean English assisted both EFL and ESL test takers to gain higher listening comprehension scores than the others. In this case, she addressed that it might be because of unequal level

of difficulty on text/passage and test item questions, not because this type of English accented speech was much easier to understand than the others.

Regarding the result of the first research question, language proficiency levels also influence the achievement of listening comprehension. It is obvious that the high EFL achievers possess more linguistic knowledge schema and bottom up views, starting from phonology, lexis, syntax, and semantics to discourse structure than the low EFL achievers. Buck (2001) posited that when some listening difficulty was found, both high and low EFL achievers need to seek for some compensatory to fulfill their weaknesses on listening comprehension. The evidence of the study showed that the high EFL achievers had more potential to exploit the compensatory skill drawn from their linguistic schema and bottom up process, especially on the familiarity of English pronunciation varieties to reach the goal of listening comprehension. Therefore, English accented speech is one outstanding linguistic knowledge schema, which impedes or fosters listening comprehension of listeners (Li, 2014).

4.2 The effect of specific content knowledge on listening comprehension

4.2.1 The result of the research question 2

Research question 2: To what extent does test-takers' specific content knowledge affect their listening comprehension ability test scores of high and low English achievers?

The second hypothesis of the study is there are differences of high and low English achievers' listening ability test scores affected by specific content knowledge at the .05 level as seen in $H_{1.1}$ and $H_{1.2}$.

$$H_0: \mu_{\text{pretest}} = \mu_{\text{posttest}}$$

$$H_{1.1}: \mu_{H_pretest} \neq \mu_{H_posttest}, \alpha = 0.05$$

$$H_{1.2}: \mu_{L_pretest} \neq \mu_{L_posttest}, \alpha = 0.05$$

To test the null hypothesis (H_0), indicating that there was no significant difference of the listening comprehension test scores affected by specific content knowledge, a paired sample t-test was employed. If H_0 is rejected, it determines there was significant difference between the high and low English achievers' pre-test and post-test mean scores affected by specific content knowledge: Communication Arts (CA) and non-Communication Arts (nCA).

Table 15

Descriptive Data on listening comprehension affected by specific content knowledge

Specific content knowledge	EFL level	n	Pretest				Posttest			
			M	SD	min	max	M	SD	min	max
CA	High	39	13.23	2.68	9	20	14.90	3.70	7	23
	Low	41	8.29	2.99	3	15	8.56	2.37	3	13
nCA	High	39	11.64	3.08	6	21	12.87	3.51	7	20
	Low	41	8.39	2.75	3	15	8.34	1.42	5	11

Notes. The maximum score is 24.

Table 15 described the mean scores of the listening comprehension from both the pre-test and the post-test affected by two different types of specific content knowledge. It showed that based on the CA content, students in the high EFL level gained the mean score in the pretest at 13.23 and the standard deviation at 2.68 while they obtained the mean score in the posttest at 14.90 and the standard deviation at 3.70. When focusing on the nCA content, the high EFL students received the mean score of the pre-test at 11.64 and the standard deviation at 3.08 while the mean score of the post-test was at 12.87 with the standard deviation at 3.51.

For the low EFL achievers, Table 4.4 showed that the mean score of the pretest affected by the CA content was at 8.29 with standard deviation at 2.99 while the mean score of the posttest was at 8.56 with standard deviation at 2.37. Regarding the non-Communication Arts content, the mean score of the pretest was at 8.39 with standard deviation at 2.75 while the mean score of the posttest was at 8.56 with standard deviation at 1.42.

Table 16

Paired samples statistic on the effect of specific content knowledge on listening comprehension

	Pairs	EFL level	Pair differences			95% confidence interval of the differences		t	df	p
			M	SD	SE	Lower	Upper			
1	PreCA-	High	-1.67	3.52	.56	-2.81	-.53	-2.96	38	.01*
	POstCA	Low	-.27	4.09	.64	-1.56	1.02	-.42	40	.68
2	PreNCA-	High	-1.23	4.49	.72	-2.69	.23	-1.71	38	.10
	PostNCA	Low	.05	3.39	.53	-1.02	1.12	.09	40	.93

Notes. *The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 16 revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the high EFL achievers' pre-test and the post-test mean scores affected by CA content knowledge at $t(38) = -2.96$, $p = .01$ whereas no significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test mean scores affected by non-CA content was found at the p-value level of less than .05. It also illustrated that there was no significant difference between the low EFL achievers' pretest and posttest mean scores affected by both different types of specific content knowledge: CA and non-CA under the condition that the mean significance was greater than the specified p-value level of .05.

Overall, these results partly support the second hypothesis of the study. They suggested that specific content knowledge related to what high EFL achievers have learnt had a statistically significant impact on listening comprehension. It can be said that the listening comprehension score of both high and low EFL achievers was influenced by the spoken input, compatible with the majority of specific knowledge they acquired.

4.2.2 Discussion of the research question no. 2

The result of the research question no. 2 revealed that there was the significant effect of specific content knowledge on listening comprehension of high EFL achievers. Despite no significant difference of low EFL achievers' listening comprehension scores affected by specific content knowledge, the mean scores of the post-listening test affected by specific content knowledge was higher than those of the pre-listening test. More speaking, the specific content knowledge related to the course or CA knowledge they regularly attended was more likely to facilitate both the high and low EFL achievers to comprehend the listening test texts than the non-CA specific content knowledge. This was supported by the study of Jafari and Hashim (2012) and Huang and Chen (2015) that listeners who had the specific content knowledge received the higher score on the listening comprehension including the specialized content than those who did not.

Other two main possible reasons might enhance this result of the study: (a) the difficulty level of the test tasks and (b) the familiarity of the test content.

(a) The difficulty level of the test tasks

In the study, the average ease of readability in eight listening texts of the study was 58.7, identified as a fairly difficulty by Flesch reading ease formula, and the average grade of the readability from Gunning's Fog Index and SMOG grade was 12.9, appropriate for college students. The difficulty index of the listening comprehension items of the study was .51. Due to the difficulty of the test contents and tasks, the theoretical evidence showed that top-down strategies might be activated when the text was found harder to understand (Wolf, 1987 as cited in Field, 2004). That means background knowledge acquired from both classroom instruction and life experience was formulated and generated to compensate some gaps of listening comprehension (Long, 1990). The evidence also supported that specific content knowledge such as subject knowledge and cultural knowledge is one crucial element of non-linguistic knowledge, influencing learners' listening comprehension (Buck, 2001; Field, 2008). The repertoire of non-linguistic knowledge was employed in some ways to help listeners compensate the lack of linguistic knowledge schema (Li, 2014). This is also confirmed

by Buck (2001) that the test takers will apply some technical terms or topical knowledge to predict the general idea of the listening text. Additionally, the world knowledge fosters language comprehension through the process of inferencing on the casual relationship between events and concepts, or the interpretation of extra information hidden in the text. It assists learners tolerate with the incompleteness of understanding the spoken text.

(b) The familiarity of the test content

Interestingly, the influence of familiarity of the spoken content related to the listeners' specific academic field was shown on the result of the study. It might be the consequence of the four-month course with over 80 percent class attendance leading the participants to gain more knowledge on technical terms and the main course content, which possibly was stored in their long-term memory. Regarding Underwood (1989, cited in Tuan and Loan, 2010), as a good language learner, the achievement on the listening comprehension can be resulted from the establishment of learning habit and the wish to understand every key words often pronounced in class. It seemed that the high EFL achievers of the study acquired that qualification rather than the low EFL achievers. To comprehend some difficult text, the high EFL achievers were capable of engaging the information stored from class or out-of-class experience with the spoken input to fulfil the incompleteness of the content (Leeser, 2004). This can also assists learners minimize their anxiety level during the listening comprehension test. When they found the context familiar, it effectively facilitates them in comprehending the whole meaning of the passage.

To elicit the effect of the specific content knowledge familiarity on listening comprehension, the following research evidence was raised to support the result of the current study. Firstly, in terms of background knowledge on the rhetorical organizational structure, Liyan, Duqin, and Chunyan (2014) investigated its effect on Chinese college students' listening comprehension. They suggested that the activation of the textual knowledge facilitated high English-ability learners' listening comprehension rather than the low ones. Additionally, Chiang and Dunkel (1992) also found that Chinese EFL listeners received the higher score in the listening comprehension test when listening to the familiar-topic lecture than to unfamiliar-

topic lecture. The study of Leiser (2004) also revealed that learners who listened to familiar passage outscored those who received unfamiliar passages. It is worth pointing that the background knowledge accumulated in the listeners' mind can be effectively drawn out to interpret and understand the text (Carrell, 1987; Buck, 2001; Li, 2014).

However, the result of the current study was contrary to the study of Sarandi (2010) focusing the content related support affecting on listening comprehension. She found no significant difference of listening comprehension test scores between the groups who received listening support and the groups who did not. This contrastive result might come from whether the feature of listening support was relevant or irrelevant to the construct of the listening test. In the Sarandi's study, her listening support heavily relied on top-down information in forms of the general information about the content of each lecture, which was provided before the listening test started. However, the construct of her listening test heavily focused on the specific information of the test content. It was assumed that phonological and syntactic information was required from the test takers as well. Under this circumstance, Koster (1987 as cited in Field, 2004) postulated that listeners usually rely on top-down information with association to the lexical knowledge when encountering the difficult spoken input. Field (2004) also claimed too much bottom-up or too much top-down might not assist listeners achieve listening comprehension. In the current study, the course knowledge was served as the listening support. The course provided lecturing, glossary lists, textbooks, and listening practice for participants to prepare for the listening comprehension test during one semester. The listening test construct of the current study was designed to cover both general and specific information of the test content. It is notable that the degree of interdependence between two distinctive processing was expected in use, depending on the test items the test takers deal with in order to achieve listening comprehension.

4.3 The implementation of test-taking strategies on listening comprehension

4.3.1 The result of the research question 3

Research question 3: What are the test-taking strategies used by high and low English achievers in the listening test?

A one-way repeated ANOVA and the descriptive statistic were employed to test the third hypothesis, high EFL achievers implement different test-taking strategies from low EFL achievers.

Table 17

One-way repeated ANOVA on the use of test-taking strategies by high EFL achievers

Source	EFL achievers	df	MS	F	<i>p</i>
Test-taking strategies	High	1.33	1.31	4.79	.02*
	Low	1.68	.02	.21	.77
Error (test-taking strategies)	High	50.66	.27		
	Low	67.25	.11		

Note * $p < .05$

A repeated measures ANOVA with a Greenhouse-Geisser correction in Table 17 revealed that there was a significant difference of the high EFL achievers' mean ratings across three main elements of test-taking strategies: listening, test management, and test wiseness ($F(1.33, 50.66) = 4.79, p < .05$) on listening comprehension whereas no significant difference of the low EFL achievers' mean ratings was found among three main elements of test-taking strategies.

Table 18

Post-hoc analysis on test-taking strategies by high EFL achievers

English accented speech		Mean diff.	SE	<i>p</i>	95% confident interval for difference	
(1)	(2)				Lower bound	Upper bound
Lis	Tm	-.25	.05	.00*	-.38	-.12
	Tw	.01	.11	1.00	-.27	.29
Tm	Tw	.26	.11	.08	-.02	.55

Notes. * $p < .05$, lis = listening strategies, Tm = test management strategies, tw = test wiseness strategies

With further Bonferri post-hoc analysis, Table 18 illustrated that there was a significant difference of the high EFL achievers' mean ratings between listening strategies and test-management strategies at $p < .05$ whereas there was no significant difference of the mean ratings across the rest pairs of listening strategies.

Table 19

Descriptive data on the use of test-taking strategies by high and low EFL achievers

Test-taking strategies	EFL level	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Listening strategies	High	39	3.47	.66	2.05	4.84
	Low	41	3.23	.48	2.21	4.37
- Metacognitive	High	39	3.49	.75	1.86	5.00
	Low	41	3.22	.48	2.25	4.13
- cognitive	High	39	3.53	.75	2.00	5.00
	Low	41	3.22	.55	2.00	4.70
- affective	High	39	3.44	1.33	1.00	5.00
	Low	41	3.41	.99	2.00	5.00
Test management	High	39	3.73	.74	2.09	5.00
	Low	41	3.23	.49	2.18	4.18
Test wiseness	High	39	3.46	.84	1.33	5.00
	Low	41	3.20	.61	2.00	4.67

Notes. 5 = always, 4 = often, 3 = sometimes, 2 = seldom, 1 = never

Table 19 showed the descriptive data on the use of test-taking strategies by high and low EFL achievers. It was found that across three main elements of test taking strategies, both high and low EFL achievers provided the highest mean rating on the use of test-management strategies ($M = 3.73$, $SD = .73$; $M = 3.23$, $SD = .49$, respectively), followed by using listening strategies ($M = 3.47$, $SD = .66$; $M = 3.23$, $SD = .48$, respectively), and test wiseness strategies ($M = 3.46$, $SD = .84$; $M = 3.20$, $SD = .61$, respectively).

Additionally, across the elements of listening strategies, the high EFL achiever group provided the highest mean ratings on cognitive strategies ($M = 3.53$, $SD = .75$), followed by meta-cognitive strategies ($M = 3.49$, $SD = .75$) and affective strategies ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 1.33$). On the contrary, the low achiever group highly rated the affective

strategies ($M = 3.41$, $SD = .99$) and similarly rated both meta-cognitive ($M = 3.22$, $SD = .48$) and cognitive strategies ($M = 3.22$, $SD = .55$).

Table 20

One-way repeated ANOVA on the use of listening strategies by high and low EFL achievers

Source	EFL	df	MS	F	<i>p</i>
	achievers				
Listening strategies	High	1.18	.14	.12	.78
	Low	1.22	.84	1.73	.20
Error (test-taking strategies)	High	44.82	1.24		
	Low	49.51	.49		

Note * $p < .05$

Under the listening strategies, a repeated measures ANOVA with a Greenhouse-Geisser correction in Table 20 revealed that there was no significant difference of the high and low EFL achievers' mean rating across the elements of the listening strategies: meta-cognitive, cognitive and affective strategies at $p < .05$. The descriptive data of high and low EFL achievers' test-taking strategies was illustrated in Appendix N.

Table 21

Five top ranks of the description data on the use of metacognitive strategies by high and low EFL achievers

Rank	Meta-cognitive Strategies	EFL level	N	Mean (M)	SD
1 st	6. I listen to the gist to understand what the text is about	High	39	4.08	1.04
	7. I listen to key words of each spoken text.	Low	41	3.88	0.84
2 nd	7. I listen to key words of each spoken text.	High	39	3.82	0.91
	6. I listen to the gist to understand what the text is about	Low	41	3.44	0.90
3 ^d	5. I try to listen to every word to make more understanding of the spoken text.	High	39	3.56	1.10
		Low	41	3.34	0.76
4 th	4. I try to keep listening a whole spoken text even though I found it difficult.	High	39	3.48	1.21
	2. Before taking the test, I scan all question items together with their options.	Low	41	3.15	0.96
5 th	2. Before taking the test, I scan all question items together with their options.	High	39	3.23	1.18
	4. I try to keep listening a whole spoken text even though I found it difficult.	Low	41	3.05	0.80

Notes. 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neutral feeling, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree

When looking closer to the subcategories of the listening strategies, Table 21 reported that the five top ranks of meta-cognitive strategies used by high and low EFL achievers were described as follows: the first strategy frequently used by the high EFL achievers was paying attention on the gist of the spoken text (M = 4.08; SD = 1.04)

whereas the low English proficient learners primarily concerned in capturing the key words of each spoken text ($M = 3.88$; $SD = 0.84$). The second strategy frequently used by both groups was in reverse from the first one ($M = 3.82$; $SD = 0.91$; $M = 3.44$; $SD = 0.90$, respectively). The third highest mean rating of the high and low EFL achievers was presented on capturing every word to make more understanding of the spoken text ($M = 3.56$; $SD = 1.10$; $M = 3.44$; $SD = 0.90$, respectively). The fourth rank rated by the high EFL achievers was paying attention on a whole spoken text even though they found it difficult ($M = 3.48$; $SD = 1.21$) whereas the low EFL learners rated the strategy on scanning all question items together with their options ($M = 3.15$; $SD = .96$). The final top rank of the high and low EFL achievers was reversed from the fourth one ($M = 3.23$; $SD = 1.18$; $M = 3.05$; $SD = 0.80$, respectively).



Table 22

Five top ranks of the description data on the use of cognitive strategies by high and low EFL achievers

Rank	Cognitive Strategies	EFL level	N	Mean (M)	SD
1 st	17. I try to use words heard from the spoken text to help me understand the text.	High	39	4.08	1.10
		Low	41	3.88	1.08
2 nd	16. I try to summarize the spoken text 13. I translate what I am listening to into Thai.	High	39	3.85	1.09
		Low	41	3.27	0.92
3 rd	8. I try to infer the indirect information of the spoken text for listening comprehension. 16. I try to summarize the spoken text	High	39	3.77	1.18
		Low	41	3.26	0.71
4 th	14. I translate every words in the spoken text into Thai. 10. I use my knowledge of the lesson to help me understand the spoken text	High	39	3.62	1.09
		Low	41	3.22	0.79
5 th	9. I use known words to guess the unknown words in the spoken text.	High	39	3.59	0.88
		Low	41	3.17	0.77

Notes. 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neutral feeling, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree

Under the cognitive strategies, Table 22 revealed that the first rank strategy highly rated by the high and low EFL achievers was gathering words heard from the spoken text to help understand the text (M = 4.08; SD = 1.10; M = 3.88; SD = 1.08, respectively). The second strategy ranked by the high and low EFL achievers belonged to the summarization of the spoken text (M = 3.85; SD = 1.09) and translation of what

they were listening to into Thai ($M = 3.27$; $SD = 0.92$), respectively. The third strategy frequently used by high and low EFL achievers laid on inferring the indirect information of the spoken text for listening comprehension ($M = 3.77$; $SD = 1.18$) and summarizing the spoken text ($M = 3.26$; $SD = 0.71$), respectively. The fourth strategy highly rated by high and low EFL achievers was on translation of every word heard in the spoken text ($M = 3.62$; $SD = 1.09$), and using their knowledge of the lesson to help me understand the spoken text ($M = 3.22$; $SD = 0.79$), respectively. The final top ranked strategy by both groups was using known words to guess the unknown words in the spoken text ($M = 3.59$; $SD = 0.88$; $M = 3.17$; $SD = 0.77$, respectively).

Table 23

Description data on the use of affective strategies by high and low EFL achievers

Rank	Affective Strategies	EFL level	N	Mean (M)	SD
1 st	1. Before taking the test, I try to relax myself, breathe deeply, and mediate or clear my mind.	High	39	3.44	1.33
		Low	41	3.42	0.99

Table 23 illustrated that the high EFL achievers tried to relax themselves, breathe deeply, and mediate or clear their mind ($M = 3.44$; $SD = 1.33$) a bit over the low EFL achievers did ($M = 3.42$; $SD = 0.99$).

Table 24

Five top ranks of the description data on the use of test management strategies by high and low EFL achievers

Rank	Test-management strategies	EFL level	N	Mean (M)	SD
1 st	20. I choose the best option from my comprehension of the overall text.	High	39	4.13	.97
		Low	41	3.93	.91
2 nd	25. I choose the best option from reconsidering the relationship of grammatical structure between the question item and its answer options.	High	39	3.90	.88
		Low	41	3.49	.87
3 rd	29. I choose the best option based on prior knowledge.	High	39	3.87	.95
		Low	41	3.17	.88
4 th	26. I choose the best option from reconsidering the relationship of the meaning between the question item and its answer options.	High	39	3.84	.90
		Low	41	3.32	.88
5 th	30. I choose the best option based on the knowledge of the lesson.	High	39	3.79	.98
		Low	41	3.20	.87
	24. I choose the best option from the hints or clues appearing in the spoken text.	Low	41	3.20	.87

Table 24, furthermore, presented the other five highest mean ratings of test management strategies provided by the high and low EFL achievers as follows: the first top rank was placed on choosing the best option from overall text comprehension by the high EFL achievers ($M = 4.13$; $SD = .97$) and by low EFL achievers ($M = 3.93$; $SD = .91$). The second top rank of the test-management strategies was put on reconsidering the best response whose grammatical structure relates to its question by high EFL learners ($M = 3.90$; $SD = .88$) and on reconsidering the best option whose meaning relates to its question by low EFL learners ($M = 3.49$; $SD = .87$). The third highest rank was rated on choosing the best option based on prior knowledge by high-ability students ($M = 3.87$; $SD = .95$) and on choosing the best option by reordering each spoken text low EFL achievers ($M = 3.17$; $SD = .88$, respectively). The fourth rank was indicated on choosing the best option whose meaning relating to its question by the high EFL learners ($M = 3.84$; $SD = .90$) and on choosing the best option whose grammatical structure relating to its question by the low EFL learners ($M = 3.32$; $SD = .88$). The last but not least rank highly rated by high EFL learners was choosing the best option based on the knowledge of the lesson ($M = 3.79$; $SD = .98$) and by low EFL achievers was on choose the best option from the hints or clues appearing in the spoken text ($M = 3.20$; $SD = .87$).

Table 25

Ranks of the description data on the use of test-wiseness strategies by high and low EFL achievers

Rank	Test-wiseness strategies	EFL level	N	Mean (M)	SD
1 st	32. I choose the best option based on the information from other previous items.	High	39	3.64	.96
		Low	41	3.54	.86
2 nd	31. I choose the best option whose words are repeated from or similar to the spoken text.	High	39	3.49	.97
		Low	41	3.07	.69
3 rd	33. I choose the best option even though I do not understand it.	High	39	3.26	1.19
		Low	41	2.98	.88

Besides this, Table 25 reported the highest mean rating of test wiseness strategies by both high and low EFL achievers was choosing the best option based on the information from other previous items ($M = 3.64$; $SD = .96$; $M = 3.54$; $SD = .86$, respectively), followed by choosing the best option whose words are repeated from or similar to the spoken text ($M = 3.49$; $SD = .97$; $M = 3.07$; $SD = .69$), and choosing the best option that they did not understand ($M = 3.26$; $SD = 1.19$; $M = 2.98$; $SD = .88$).

4.3.2 Reports on the qualitative data

Besides the aforementioned quantitative data, the content analysis was employed to elicit more in-depth details for the third research question:

1. Reports on strategies to comprehend listening inputs

To discover more in-depth details such as how and when the test-taking strategies were used, content analysis was conducted on the retrospective verbal reports or interviews of 20 students equally selected from two different groups of EFL proficiency level: high and low on the voluntary basis. The following are the verbal reports of both high and low EFL respondents on the use of listening strategies, comprising of metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social affective strategies. These verbal reports were organized and presented in the chronological order of the frequent used strategies.

1.1 Metacognitive listening strategies

High EFL achievers' interview data revealed that five metacognitive listening strategies were employed in order to anticipate the way information is proceeded and stored for listening comprehension. The most frequently used strategy by high EFL respondents was pre-listening planning, followed by selective attention, directed attention, post-listening evaluation, and while-listening monitoring.

The first strategy was the pre-listening planning all of high EFL respondents used to prepare themselves for the listening comprehension test tasks. That is, all of ten high EFL respondents tended to have a look through the test and skim all questions together with their possible options in the listening test before listening. The examples of the verbal data are as follows:

Student G: "I skim all questions to determine what I have to do with the listening."

Student F: "I read all questions to decide what information I should pay attention."

The second strategy that all of them also used was selective attention, a strategy for selecting a specific aspect of the text during listening the spoken text. All of them reported that they tried to listen to either the gist or the key words of the listening text for their comprehension and some of them added that they could notice

the structure of the listening text. The following are the examples of the high EFL achievers' reports on selective attention:

Student A: "During listening, I tried to listen to the key words from the text, then I memorized them. Then I tried to listen what the main point of the listening text is. I noticed that the main point was located at the beginning of the text."

Student B: "First, I tried to capture key words during listening and tried to listening what the text was about."

The third strategy that seven out of ten EFL high respondents employed was directed attention, a strategy of concentrating on listening in spite of listening difficulty. The majority of these respondents reported that they attempted to concentrate the listening input throughout the end while a few reported that they tried to maintain concentration on the listening even though they found some problems along the way. For example,

Student F: "I tried to set my mind on listening because I did not want to miss any information."

Student C: "I tried to listening to the whole text to understand what the text was about even though I was unfamiliar with the accent of the speaker."

The fourth strategy implemented by seven out of ten high EFL respondents was post-listening evaluation, referring to a strategy for self-evaluating their performance or the use of strategy as well as noticing some problem hindering the listening comprehension after listening. Most of these respondents tried to identify their problem found in the listening such as unfamiliar accents, only-once listening, and a long text while a few commented their own performance and the use of strategy. For example,

Student G: "If I couldn't translate the words or text, this exam was difficult to me."

Student B: "If I did not understand the text, I chose other test-taking strategies to deal with."

Student A: "Some accents were clear but some were not. So this made me in listening difficulty."

The final strategy used by six high EFL respondents was the while-listening monitoring, a strategy for checking or verifying the understanding as well as noticing some problems together with solving them during listening. Besides this, this strategy helps listeners to decide which part of the input is necessary to be successful in listening comprehension. For example,

Student E: “While listening, I started focusing the specific detail first, then listen to whole general information.”

Student B: “When I listened to the beginning of the text, I knew it was about the meaning of the key word.”

Student H: “I forgot what I have heard along the way, so I tried to recall some words immediately.”

1.1.2. Low EFL Achievers

According to low EFL achievers’ verbal reports, the most frequent used strategy of metacognition was the post-listening evaluation, followed by selective attention, directed attention, while-listening attention, and pre-listening planning.

The first strategy was the post-listening evaluation used by nine out of ten respondents. They tended to evaluate their performance and identify several problems hindering their listening achievement such as unfamiliar accent, unwritten texts, fast speed rate, and only-once listening. For example,

Student 1: “The speakers spoke too fast until I could not capture anything.”

Student 2: “I had no much time to think because I could listen to the text only once.”

Student 5: “if the text was written, I could translate some words or underline some key words.”

The second strategy employed by eight out of ten low EFL respondents was directed attention. Most of them continued listening through the end of the text even though they don’t understand the text much while a few tried to maintain their concentration throughout listening. For example,

Student 5: “I kept listening to the whole text.”

Student 9: “I closed my eyes, and tried to listen to the text through the end.”

The third strategy was selective attention utilized by seven low EFL respondents. Half of them focused on listening to the main idea of the text while another half put an emphasis on listening to the key words of the text. For example, Student 3: “I tried to get the main idea of the text by capturing the words.” Student 10: “I tried to capture some key words.”

The fourth strategy was while-listening monitoring used by seven low EFL respondents. They noticed their listening problems during the listening but some did not know how to solve them right away, while a few tried to find the solution of that problem at the same time. For example, Student 7: “during the listening, I didn’t understand the text so I read the options, instead.” Student 8: “I missed some information when I found some difficult words. I didn’t know what to do.”

The final strategy was the pre-listening planning used by six respondents. They said they tried to read all questions and options in the test before listening. This might guide them what information they should mainly focus on. For example, Student 1: “I read all questions and options first to guide me what I should handle the test.”

1.2 Cognitive strategies

The high EFL respondents’ data from the interviews verified that there were nine cognitive listening strategies implemented to comprehend the listening input. The majority of these high-ability respondents tended to use the inferencing strategy as the first one, followed by grouping, note taking, memorization, reconstruction, summarization, prediction, elaboration, and translation.

The first strategy for inferencing was frequently used by eight out of ten high EFL respondents. Most of them reported that they used some known words to guess the meaning of unknown words they have heard whereas a few used the context to guess the missing information such as meanings of unfamiliar words and parts of a text that they cannot hear clearly. For example, Student F: “I knew lots of words so I could guess other unfamiliar words nearby.”

Student J: “I used the words related to my major field to guess other difficulty words in the text.”

The second strategy employed by seven high EFL respondents was reconstruction, involving the use of words from the text or some background knowledge to construct the meaning of the original input. For example,

Student D: “I could hear some words. They ensured me that the text was about ‘radio’. So this helped me decide what the text is about.”

Student E: “When I found the word ‘product’, I connect the text related to the economy.”

Student I: “When I heard this word, I could predict what the text was about.”

The third strategy mentioned by seven out of ten high EFL was note taking. One said that he noted down some answers close to the questions whereas others put some marks on the words and phrases appearing in the options of each question items whenever they have heard them. For example,

Student B: “I kept listening to the text and placed a mark on key words I heard, which were written in the options of each question item. This made me confident that the words I heard was the right one I thought.”

Student E: “I wrote down the answer for this question.”

Interestingly, the fourth strategy used by six high EFL achievers was the memorization. This strategy is necessary for them to deal with the listening tasks, which are unwritten. For example, Student F said, “she tried to memorize the key words and the content. This helps me easily choose the most appropriate response because both questions and responses in the part 1 were unwritten”.

The fifth strategy employed by six out of ten high EFL respondents was grouping, referring to recall information based on grouping regarding common attributes. This strategy was not listed in the listening strategies taxonomy of this study. Most of them listened to the text and related the words that sound the same into a group whereas one broke up the words for parts to achieve the listening comprehension goal. For example,

Student E: “When I heard the word, secret trade, I broke up the word ‘secret’ from another one. It might be about the secret of the company.”

Student J: “I tried to trace back some particular information I heard from words I grouped.”

The sixth strategy used by six high EFL respondents was summarization, a strategy of making a mental summary of information presented in the listening input. For example,

Student A: “I listen to the text through the end and I can summarize what the whole text is about.”

Student B: “When I can summarize what the text was about as a whole, I can analyze who said this text.”

The seventh strategy that five high EFL respondents used was elaboration, bridging new information to existing knowledge to produce a more complete interpretation. Most of them reported that they used knowledge they gained from the course to help them comprehend the listening input whereas one said that he included new information to understand the text. For example,

Student C: “the listening text was easy for me to understand when I can link some of my lesson knowledge with the text I heard.”

Student B: “Because I love watching YouTube, this helps me get some idea of the listening input such as the text about trafficking.”

The eighth strategy used by five high EFL respondents was prediction, a strategy to anticipate the next part of the text. This strategy was not included in the listening strategy taxonomy of this study. For example,

Student B: “When I heard the key word of the text, I predicted that the text might begin with its definition.”

Student I: “I predicted that the main important part of the story was in the middle so I had to pay much attention on that.”

The ninth strategy four high EFL respondents relied on for listening comprehension was translation. For example,

Student H: “I tried to translate the words and phrases together with listening.”

Student C: “I translated words I heard into Thai.”

However, it is interesting that two respondents never translate the words or text into Thai. They tried to understand it right away and did not want to pay much

attention on this strategy. For example, Student E said, “I never translate into Thai. If I did that, I would miss other important information.”

Regarding low EFL achievers’ verbal data, eight cognitive listening strategies were implemented to understand the listening input. The most frequent used strategy was note taking, followed by reconstruction, memorization, elaboration, translation, grouping, and inferencing, and prediction.

The first strategy used by all of low EFL respondents was note taking. Under this strategy, instead of writing or jotting down some words or key points on the test, most of them tried to put some marks on the words or phrases they heard that appeared on the options of each question. This increased their confidence in listening comprehension and spelling words while listening is time-consuming. For example, Student 3: “I put a mark on the words in the options to make sure that they have already mentioned by the speaker.”

Student 10: “I kept placing a mark on the words and phrases I heard. When I saw the written words, I could know their meaning.”

The second strategy implemented by six out of ten low EFL achievers was reconstruction. Most of them tried to capture words or phrases to understand what the text is about. For example,

Student 9: “I brought all words I heard in the text to construct the text meaning.”

Student 10: “I gathered all words uttered in the text to get me to the general meaning of the text.”

The third strategy used by four respondents was memorization. This strategy seemed to be not useful for listening comprehension (Goh, 1998). When students found some listening difficulty, they tried to put whole text in the mind to process with some particular tasks later. For example,

Student 5: “I tried to put the text in my head because I didn’t understand what the speaker said.”

Student 7: “I tried to remember words or phrases but the text is too long. I felt blurred so I forgot.

The fourth strategy employed by four low EFL respondents was elaboration. Most of them reported that they tried to apply some knowledge from the lesson to

help them understand the listening text whereas one mentioned that she tried to apply her prior knowledge to understand the text. For example,

Student 6: “I tried to apply the knowledge I gained from the lesson to fill some information that I did not understand from the text.”

Student 9: “I did not understand the text so I linked to my prior knowledge when the topic is familiar.”

The fifth strategy used by three Low EFL achievers was grouping. All of them attempted to relate words they heard into groups to understand what the text is about. For example,

Student 2: ‘When I heard the word ‘film’, I tried to make sure that other words were under this key word.”

Student 3: “I tried to group the words I heard with the key word, radio.”

The sixth strategy utilized by only one low EFL student was inferencing. She said that she put an effort to guess the meaning of the difficult words from all of her known words in the text.

The seven strategy employed by only one low EFL student was prediction. She mentioned that she tried to predict what the next part of the text might be. This helped pay more attention on the next part.

The final strategy used by only one low EFL achievers was translation. She said, “Translation helps her understand the text”. On the other hand, two students in the low level reported that they could not remember the meaning of the words they heard, so this was the main obstacle for them in using the translation strategy for listening comprehension.

1.3 Affective strategies

High EFL achievers’ interview data revealed that there were three out of ten students employed the affective strategy for listening comprehension. One tried to remain his calm before the listening test started whereas two seemed to express some negative emotion when encountering some difficulty. For example,

Student D: “I did not feel anxious during the test. I knew this kind of feeling was problematic for listening comprehension”

Student E: “I got headache because of some difficult accents.”

Student J: “I felt confused when I missed the beginning of the text.”

Low EFL achievers’ verbal data also revealed that two students used the affective strategy for listening comprehension. One reported that she could not control his anxiety during listening whereas another tried to encourage herself to achieve the listening goal. For example,

Student 3: “I tried to encourage myself that I could capture some key words for the answer.”

Student 8: “I was so anxious because I was afraid I could not do it.”

2. Reports strategies used by high and low EFL achievers to select the best answer

2.1 Test management strategies

The interview data by high and low EFL achievers on test management strategies was presented as follows:

a) High EFL Achievers

All high EFL respondents’ verbal data showed that the most frequently used strategy was selecting the best answer based on their understanding of the overall text. Nine of them also put an attempt to sequence the talk, focus on specific detail, and group the words in the answer option with the key word of the question, conducted by all of them during listening. For example,

Student A: “I selected the best answer from understanding the overall text.”

Students B: “I selected the best answer from ordering what was said on the text.”

Student C: “I grouped the words of the options based on the key word of the test questions.”

The second strategy frequently used by eight high EFL achievers was selecting the best answer based on either considering the most reasonable one of four possible options, or reconsidering four possible options for the most reasonable one. For example,

Student D: “I went back to the question and reconsidered the option before selecting the best one.”

Students F: “I compared all of four answer options. Which one is the most reasonable for the test question?”

When missing the portion of the spoken text or being uncertain with the option, seven of the total number of high EFL achievers’ interview data revealed that they used their background knowledge and familiarity to select the best answer as the third frequently used strategy. For example,

Student C: “I chose the best options from the knowledge gained from the lessons.”

Student G: “I chose the best options that I was very familiar with.”

The fourth strategy frequently used by six of them was planning which question they should concentrate first. That means they did not answer the question in chronological order. For example,

Student D: “I did not answer each test question based on the chronological order.”

The final strategy frequently used by five students was selecting the best option including familiar words or terms. For example,

Student H: “I chose the best answer option including words I was familiar with.”

b) Low EFL achievers

Low EFL respondents’ verbal data showed that the first strategy used by eight of them was the selection of the best answer based on the understanding of the overall text, and based on comparing the options for the most reasonable one. For example,

Student 3: “I selected the best answer from my understanding of the text first.”

Student 6: “I selected the best answer after I had compared which one is the most reasonable for that test question.”

The second strategy used by seven students was the selection of the best answer through sequencing the event of the text. For example,

Student 1: “I read and answered the test question I heard first from the text.”

The third strategy used by six students was selecting the best answer whose words were in the same group as the key words of the text. For example,

Student 2: “I chose the best answer including words related to the key word or concept of the question.”

The final strategy used by five students was selecting the best answer based on their academic background knowledge. For example,

Student 7: “I chose the best answer based on my knowledge from the lesson.”

2.2 Test wiseness strategies

a) High EFL Achievers

High EFL achievers’ interview data revealed that four of them select the best option from words or phrases they heard from the text. Only one reported that he chose the longest written option as the best answer. For example,

Student E: “I selected the best option because it included the word or phrase from the listening text.”

Student K: “I chose this answer because it was written longest.”

b) Low EFL Achievers

Low EFL achievers’ interview data revealed that nine out of ten students selected the best option from a word or phrase heard in the listening text whereas three students selected the option even though they absolutely do not understand it, and only one used the clues in other items to answer an item under consideration. For example,

Student 9: “I read the answer options of the previous test questions. It was like the key information for me to make decision what the best answer of this test question should be.”

4.3.2 Discussion of the research question no. 3

The third research question emphasized the effect of using the test taking strategies on the listening comprehension between high and low EFL achievers. The result of the third research question was discussed regarding the quantitative and qualitative data of the test-taking strategies used.

According to the quantitative result of the study, it suggested that the high EFL achievers employed more test management strategies than any other strategies, especially listening strategies to deal with the listening comprehension test whereas the low EFL achievers did not provide any mean rating discrepancies among all three main elements of test taking strategies. However, with regard to the descriptive statistics, the highest mean rating provided by the low EFL achievers was the test management strategies and listening strategies, going to the similar trend as the high EFL achievers did. This quantitative result might be attributed to the format of the listening test. Rationally, the test management strategies do not involve directly using a certain knowledge of language, but provide indirectly support for taking a test with association to eliminate, compare, crosscheck, or select some options that are particularly related to the listening input (Cohen, 2014). It is worth pointing that the high EFL achievers generally took more advantages on the format of multiple choice test options based on what they heard from the spoken text together with their linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge in order to make decision on eliminating or selecting the best answer option than the low EFL achievers did. The strength of the multiple-choice format that is widely used in language testing is assessing several aspects of language learning with the high degree of reliability, objective scoring, and economy. The multiple-choice test format also becomes the most influential test format on test-taking strategies because it not only facilitates the process of listening comprehension but also decreases the stress of hearing the text, refreshes listeners' memories, and provides readiness for listeners (Hemmati & Ghaderi, 2014). As noticed, this result is similar to the study of Ghafournia (2013) focusing on the relationship between using multiple-choice test-taking strategies and general language proficiency levels. Ghafournia asserted that the high EFL proficient level listeners more frequently

used the test-taking strategies than less EFL proficient level listeners did on the multiple-choice test format.

Regarding the qualitative analysis, it suggested that the high EFL achievers tended to report more subcategories of the test-taking strategies, especially on listening strategies and test management strategies than the low EFL achievers did since the listening test items of the study covered both global (e.g. synthesizing information and understanding gist) and local questions (e.g. locating details or understand individual words). This result was consistent with Piamsai's (2014) study, an investigation of the use of listening strategies and listening performance of proficient and non- proficient language learners of Thailand. Her qualitative result showed that the high listening ability learners tended to implement more proper strategies of capturing the main idea, avoiding word-by-word translation, and listening to key words to understand the listening text than the low listening ability ones did in association with the listening comprehension questions on summarization. Additionally, this qualitative result might be reliant upon the strategic skill level of the listeners. Buck (2001) posited that the utilization of test-taking strategies can considerably vary, depending upon the strategic skill of the listeners. There was some evidence that test takers modify their test-taking strategies depending on listening tasks. Pan and In'nami (2015) aimed to examine strategy use in relation to listening proficiency level, task types, and scores in the listening test. They found that there was some significant interaction between strategy use and the four types of the TOEIC listening test tasks (e.g. photographs, question-response, conversations, and short talks). It can also notice from the quantitative result of their study, the higher strategic skill level the listeners have, the more frequently the metacognitive and cognitive strategies were used.

According to both quantitative and qualitative analyses, there was the presence of using test-wiseness strategies cognitively proceeded by both high and low EFL achievers on the listening comprehension test. This might affect the validity of the test and the score interpretation even though it was likely that the high and low EFL achievers put an effort to utilize the test-wiseness strategies least in order to avoid losing the test score under the testing situation. Cohen (2012) contended that the validity of language testing is depreciated if the test takers fail to use appropriate test-

taking strategies. Put in another word, the inappropriate use of the test taking strategies might result in construct-irrelevant variance or impact the construct validation of language tests (Messick, 1988). Thus, test wiseness is one of the problematic strategies because it is viewed as the ability to use special strategies to select one correct response, especially on the multiple-choice items, without necessarily understanding or knowing the particular content or skill that is being measured. One main cause of this is the susceptible items in the test, which were typically found in the teacher-made tests due to no requirement of the test pilot (Tavakoli & Samian, 2014). Another is on the test-wise skill training and the experience level of testing. Tavakoli and Samian (2014) claimed that even standardized tests would not effectively immune to the test-wiseness process of the trained or experienced test takers. With respect to many empirical studies, they confirmed that the use of test-wiseness strategies cannot completely be prevented or refrained from any kinds of tests, whether teacher made or standardized tests. This can be attributed by Rogers and Yang (1996)'s model of skilled test takers' test-wise test taking behavior.

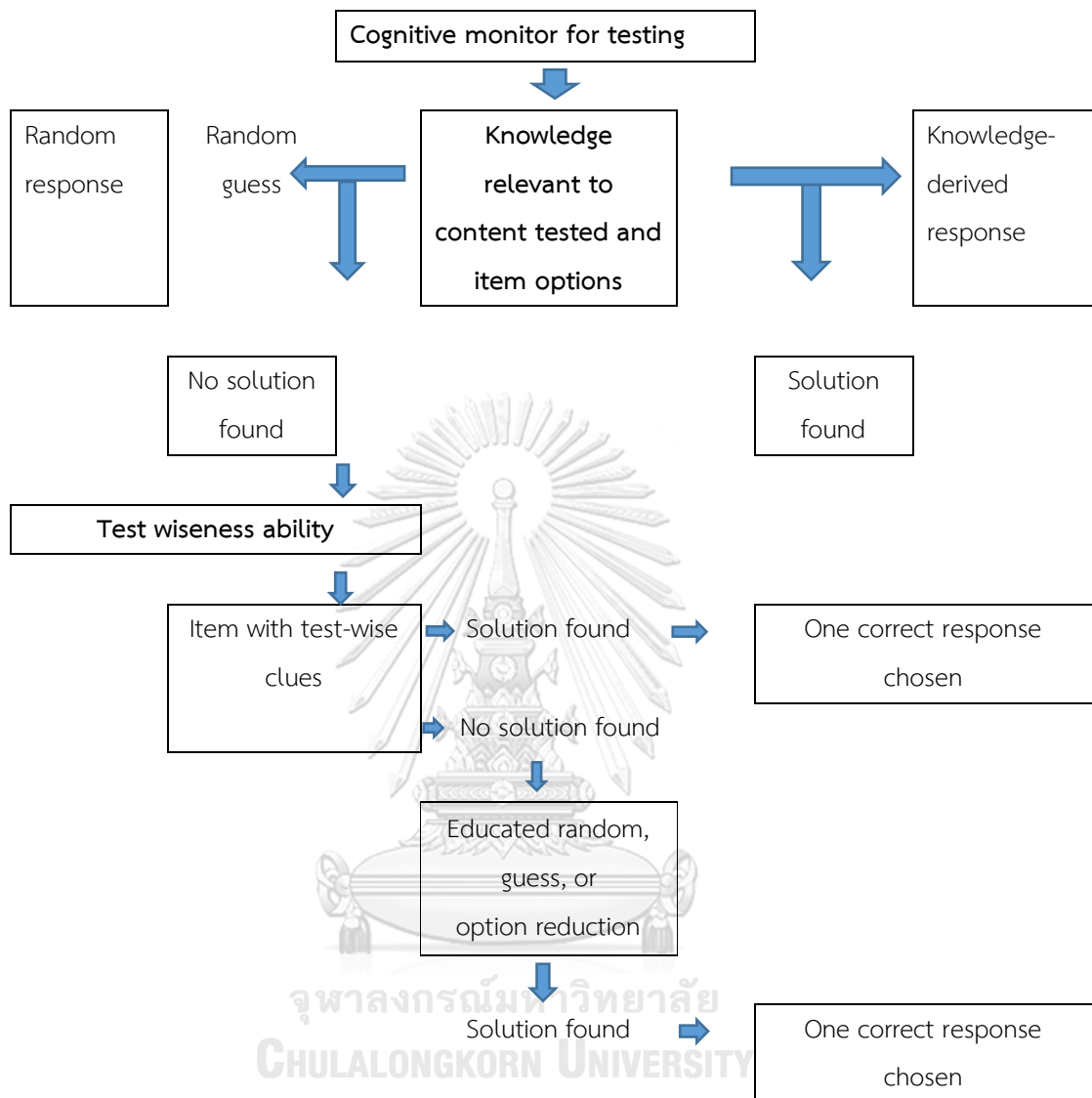


Figure 4 Model of test-taking behavior adapted from Rogers and Yang (1996, p. 252)

According to Figure 4, it can be discussed that there were two possible directions for test takers to accomplish the listening comprehension test. The first direction is choosing the best response from test takers' repertoire of linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge relevant to the test construct and purpose. This direction is expected by test developers in order to enhance the degree of the construct validity of the test. However, if test takers find the test difficult, they will move to another direction, test-wiseness strategies. Under this direction, test takers cognitively spent time considering a test-wiseness element-item clue match through selecting the best response from the clue provided from the previous items or one word heard in the context until the solution was made. With the test experience and test training, the test takers might be on the educated guess, random, or option reduction in order to gain the best educated random response for the higher test score. If not, both skilled and unskilled test takers might skip it to the entirely guessing strategy due to time limitation and the physical or mental exhaustion along the way of their educated guess or clue.

4.4 The relationship among English accented speeches, specific content knowledge and test-taking strategies on listening comprehension

4.4.1 The result of the research question 4

Research question 4: Is there any relationship among English accented speeches, specific content knowledge and test-taking strategies on listening comprehension ability test scores of high and low English achievers?

The fourth hypothesis is that there is a relationship among English accented speech, specific content knowledge and test-taking strategies on listening comprehension ability of high and low English achievers. To prove the hypothesis, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) was used to measure the strength and direction of a linear relationship among three main variables. Regarding Knapp (2014), the direction of the relationship is represented by the value of r between -1 and +1, indicating the perfect negative and positive linear correlation, respectively. A value of zero ($r=0$) means there is a nonlinear relationship between the two variables. Another measurement is the strength of the relationship. If the value of the correlation is greater than ± 0.8 , it is describe as strong association whereas if it is less than ± 0.5 , it is described as weak association. If the value of the correlation is between ± 0.1 and ± 0.3 , or from ± 0.3 to ± 0.5 , they are described as the small and medium association, respectively.

Table 26

Correlation matrix among English accented speeches, specific content knowledge and test-taking strategies by high EFL achievers

Variables	X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	X7	X8	X9
English-accented speeches									
American (X1)		.14	.03	.23	-.11	-.01	.15	.06	-.32*
Indian (X2)			.18	.21	-.07	-.19	-.03	.02	-.18
Chinese (X3)				-.10	.03	-.24	.14	.10	-.03
Thai (X4)					-.17	-.27	-.02	-.03	-.17
Specific content knowledge									
CA (X5)						.19	-.04	.04	-.19
Non-CA (X6)							-.11	-.08	-.43
Test-taking strategies									
Listening (X7)								.90**	.59**
Test management (X8)									.61**
Test-wiseness (X9)									

Notes. * $p < .05$, ** $p = .000$

Table 26 indicated that with a Pearson product-moment correlation, there was a statistically significant linear relationship between English accented speeches and test-taking strategies in negative way by high English proficient learners in order to achieve the objective of the listening test. Specifically, the mean score on American-English accented speech was negatively associated with the mean score on using the test wiseness strategies ($r = -.32$, $n = 39$, $p = .05$). The table also illustrated that, rated by the high EFL achiever group, there was a positive association among three main subcategories of test-taking strategies themselves: listening, test management, and test wiseness at the significant level of less than .05. Specifically, the use of listening strategies are positively correlated with the use of test management strategies ($r = .90$, $n = 39$, $p = .000$), and test wiseness strategies ($r = .59$, $n = 39$, $p = .000$) in taking the test.

Likewise, the use of test management strategies was positively associated with the use of test wiseness strategies ($r=.61, n=39, p=.000$).

Table 27

Correlation matrix among English accented speeches, specific content knowledge and test-taking strategies by low EFL achievers

Variables	X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	X7	X8	X9
English-accented speeches									
American (X1)		.06	.26	.09	-.35*	-.44*	-.00	.18	.04
Indian (X2)			.09	.36*	-.39*	-.49**	-.10	-.02	-.23
Chinese (X3)				.18	-.49**	-.36*	-.24	.18	.18
Thai (X4)					-.51**	-.40*	-.17	-.16	-.35*
Specific content knowledge									
CA (X5)						.18	.13	.07	.28
Non-CA (X6)							.24	.14	.244
Test-taking strategies									
Listening (X7)								.79**	.64**
Test management (X8)									.68**

Notes. * $p<.05$, ** $p=.000$

Table 27 discovered that with a Pearson product-moment correlation, by the low EFL achievers, there was a statistically significant linear relationship between English accented speeches and specific content knowledge in the negative direction ($r=-.35, n=41, p=.05$) at the alpha level of .05. Specifically, the specific content knowledge related to the CA course (CA) was negatively associated with the familiarity of American-English ($r = -.35, n = 41, p = .02$), Indian-English ($r = -.39, n = 41, p = .01$), Chinese-English ($r = -.49, n = 41, p = .00$), and Thai-English accented speeches ($r = -.51, n = 41, p = .00$). Additionally, the specific content knowledge unrelated to the CA

course (Non-CA) was negatively correlated with the familiarity of American-English ($r = -.44, n = 41, p = .00$), Indian-English ($r = -.49, n = 41, p = .00$), Chinese-English ($r = -.36, n = 41, p = .02$), and Thai-English accented speeches ($r = -.40, n = 41, p = .01$). That means, the higher score the low EFL achiever group received from English accented speeches, the less score they received based on content specific. Likewise, when the high score they gained from specific content knowledge, the less score they had on English accented speeches.

Additionally, Table 4.13 pointed out that among the subcategories of the test-taking strategies, there was a statistically significant correlation in the positive direction at the alpha level of less than .05 by the low EFL achievers. That mean, listening strategies were positively correlated with test management strategies ($r = .79, n = 41, p = .00$) and test wiseness strategies ($r = .64, n = 41, p = .00$) in taking a test. Besides this, test management strategies and test wiseness strategies were positively correlated at $r = .68, n = 41, p = .00$. In addition, among the subcategories of the English accented speech, there was a statistically significant correlation in the positive direction at the alpha level of less than .05. Specifically, the Indian-, and the Thai-English accented speeches are positively correlated at ($r = .36, n = 41, p = .02$) on listening comprehension.

4.4.2 Discussion of the research question no. 4

The fourth research question focuses on the relationship of the characteristics of the listening task: English accented speeches and specific content knowledge, and the characteristics of the listeners: test-taking strategies to achieve listening comprehension. The systematic inferential statistic found some correlations among English-accented speeches, specific content knowledge, and test-taking strategies on listening comprehension of high and low EFL achievers. These resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis, indicating that there was no relationship among three main variables in the study.

This can be discussed in accordance with three major significant correlations across English-accented speeches, specific content knowledge, and test-taking strategies on listening comprehension of high and low EFL achievers as follows:

1. The quantitative result firstly suggested that high EFL achievers rated the American-English accented speech and test-wiseness strategies in the negative correlation whereas low EFL achievers rated the Thai-English accented speech and test-wiseness strategies in the negative correlation. The main reason might be the familiarity of American English and Thai English both groups of students had in their daily life. For example, American English often appears in the English textbooks and daily-life mass media whereas Thai English is frequently heard in the regular English classroom. It facilitated both high and low EFL achievers to effectively deal with the listening test task in the meaningful way. This was supported by several evidence from Major et al. (2002), Adank et al. (2009), and Matsuura et al. (2014) on a positive relationship between Inner Circle English-accented speeches and listening comprehension and the effect of the L1-shared English speech on listening comprehension, conducted by Suppatkul (2009) and Harding (2011). Likewise, it can be said that the less test-wiseness strategies were employed, the more familiar the test takers were in the English accented speech of the spoken input. That is, less using test-taking strategies caused the test-takers' other relevant strategies broken down in order to contribute the construct-relevant variance to the test results. Put into another word, the negative relationship between linguistic knowledge, represented by English accented speech and test-wiseness strategies might enhance the construct relevant variance of the test. Cohen (2014) claimed that more utilization of test-wiseness strategies can viewed as the construct-irrelevant variance of the listening test. It should be aware that when the test takers encountered some difficulties found on listening comprehension tasks, they might alternatively decide to make a guess or use some clues from some answer options of the other questions in order to gain the higher scores of the listening test without revealing competence in the targeted language skill area. It is also against the aim of designing and developing the listening

comprehension test, which is to measure not only the test-takers' listening performance, but also to their flexibility in adapting or applying the appropriate test-taking strategies under the different situations (Cohen, 2014).

2. The analysis demonstrated that there was a negative correlation between English accented speech and specific content knowledge on the listening comprehension of the low EFL achievers at the significant level. It can be said that the low EFL achievers were plausibly reliant upon the familiarity of either particular English accented speeches or some specific content knowledge to achieve their listening comprehension as opposed to what the high EFL achievers did. In theory, listening comprehension is the result of an interactive process dealing with three main processes: bottom-up, top-down and interactive processes to making plausible interpretation of what have been said (Buck, 2001; Field, 2013; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005). Specific content knowledge is one type of background knowledge under the schema of listeners stored in their long-term memory whereas the varieties of English-accented speeches represented one factor of the linguistic complexity including phonological, lexical, and syntactic features. Limitations of the working memory capacity made the test-takers less listening performance (Brunfaut, 2016). The evidence of Was and Woltz (2007) was revealed that there was the positive relationships of both working memory and background knowledge, mediated by long term memory for listening comprehension. Empirically, if the low EFL achievers had the effective ability to build the collaboration and interdependence between top-down and bottom-up knowledge, they would cross over the difficulty of listening comprehension under the interactive frame (Rost & Wilson, 2013) which fulfills some comprehensive gaps in the interactive compensatory way. However, the caution was if they were over reliant upon either linguistic knowledge or background knowledge, it would distract them from the general understanding and the actual content of the listening input, respectively (Field, 2004).
3. The result obtained from the perceived data suggested that both high and low EFL achievers implemented all three types of test-taking strategies: listening

strategies, test management strategies, and test-wiseness strategies in the positive linear correlation in order to complete the listening comprehension test. It can be interpreted that both groups of EFL achievers made a lot of effort to tackle the difficulties of the listening comprehension tasks with all three main elements of the test taking strategies. This can help test developers to verify the construct validity of the listening comprehension test even though the test scores of two groups were quite distinctive regarding their language proficiency level. The appropriate use of test taking strategies reflects the test construct validity (Cohen, 2014). The result of the study was in line with the study of Vahdany, Akbari, Shahrestani, and Askari (2016), focusing on the relationship between cognitive and metacognitive strategy used by EFL Iranian learners on listening comprehension. They found the positive correlation of test taking strategies and listening test performance and also the positive relationship between metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Interestingly, it could not guarantee that the flexible use of the test taking strategies made the EFL learners more competent second language listeners or in the higher language proficiency (Christine. C.M. Goh, 1998).

The main reason of the positive linear correlation of using the test taking strategies come from the instructional approach in English classroom and the difficulty of the listening tasks.

a) The effectiveness of teaching and learning in English classroom

Although this study did not trace the instructional approach of the test taking strategies, some empirical evidence showed that learners who received some training on using both general and specific test-taking strategies significantly outperformed learner who received the comprehension-based training (Ostovar-Namaghi, 2016). The study of Bozorgian and Pillay (2013) also found that learners who were taught with listening strategies delivered the first language, Persian significantly performed better than the learners who did not. Besides this, Chen (2013) the listening problems such as unfamiliar vocabulary, rapid speech rate, and linking sounds between words were

gradually minimized after the listeners regularly received listening strategy instruction within fourteen weeks. Therefore, regarding the previous studies, it can be assumed that teachers in English class might provide some guidance of using listening strategies to improve learners' listening performance.

b) The difficulty of the listening tasks

The listening comprehension test is one of the main teaching instruments for teachers to assess students' listening performance and to promote meaningful involvement students with the objective of the course (Cohen, 1994). During taking the listening comprehension tests, learners might construct automatically their own understanding of the listening inputs or put an effort to transform some strategies what they have learnt in class or what they experienced from several previous listening tests to comfort them when encountering the difficulty of the listening tasks. In this study, the listening inputs were identified as fairly difficulty by Flesch reading ease formula and leveled for college students by Gunning's Fog Index and SMOG grade. It is not surprising that both high and low EFL achievers made their efforts to achieve the listening tasks by using all three main elements of the test-taking strategies in the positive line.

4.5 The attitudes on English accented speeches

4.5.1 The result of the research question 5

Research question 5: What are the attitudes of both high and low English achievers towards using English accented speech in the listening test?

The final hypothesis that high English achievers expressed different attitudes or preferences towards the varieties of English speakers from low English achievers was tested by an analysis of variance (ANOVA) with repeated measures. This inferential statistic was employed to determine the differences of the 5-point Likert scale attitudes of high and low EFL achievers towards English accented speeches (e.g. American-English, Indian-English, Chinese-English, and Thai-English) through listening comprehension under three main traits: personness, communicability, and testing potentiality.

Table 28 arranged the mean scores of *high and low EFL achievers'* English accented speech evaluation based on three main dimensions: personness, communicability, and testing potentiality. The table presented that under the trait of personness, the high EFL learners provided the highest mean rating to American English ($M = 3.38$, $SD = .77$), followed by Thai English ($M = 3.05$, $SD = .56$), Indian English ($M = 3.03$, $SD = .70$), and Chinese English ($M = 2.87$, $SD = .86$) whereas the low EFL learners gave the highest mean rating to Chinese English ($M = 3.31$, $SD = .81$), closely followed by American English ($M = 3.30$, $SD = .81$), Thai English ($M = 3.15$, $SD = .70$), and Indian English ($M = 3.04$, $SD = .71$). Besides this, under the communicability trait, the high EFL achievers highly rated American English as the first rank ($M = 3.41$, $SD = .84$), followed by Thai English ($M = 2.70$, $SD = .59$), Indian English ($M = 2.59$, $SD = .86$), and Chinese English ($M = 2.20$, $SD = .68$). Likewise, the low EFL achievers highly rated American English as the first rank ($M = 3.08$, $SD = .91$), followed by Thai English ($M = 2.96$, $SD = .62$), Chinese English ($M = 2.75$, $SD = .75$), and Indian English ($M = 2.69$, $SD = .83$). Under the last trait, testing potentiality, both high and EFL learners evaluated Thai English as the first rank ($M = 3.10$, $SD = .58$; $M = 2.97$, $SD = .93$), followed by American English ($M = 2.99$, $SD = .66$; $M = 2.67$, $SD = .89$), Indian English ($M = 2.57$, $SD = .76$; $M = 2.47$, $SD = .74$), and Chinese English ($M = 2.23$, $SD = .52$; $M = 2.38$, $SD = .73$).

Table 28

Rank orders of high and low EFL achievers' English accented speech evaluation with mean scores under three main traits

Traits	EFL achiever	1 st		2 nd		3 rd		4 th	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
1. Personness		Am		Th		In		Ch	
	High	3.38	.77	3.05	.56	3.03	.70	2.87	.86
		Ch		Am		Th		In	
	Low	3.31	.81	3.30	.81	3.15	.70	3.04	.71
2. Communicability		Am		Th		In		Ch	
	High	3.41	.84	2.70	.59	2.59	.86	2.20	.68
		Am		Th		Ch		In	
	Low	3.08	.91	2.96	.62	2.75	.75	2.69	.83
3. Testing potentiality		Th		Am		In		Ch	
	High	3.10	.58	2.99	.66	2.57	.76	2.23	.52
		Th		Am		In		Ch	
	Low	2.97	.93	2.67	.89	2.47	.74	2.38	.73

Notes: The highest scale possible is 5. Rating were made on five-point scales (1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree). The number of the high and low EFL achievers is 39 and 41, respectively.

Am = American-English, In = Indian-English, Ch = Chinese-English, Th = Thai-English.

Table 29

One-way repeated measures ANOVA on the high and low EFL achievers' attitude towards English-accented speeches in listening comprehension

Traits	EFL achievers	df	MS	F	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
Personness (personness error)	High	3 (114)	1.81 (.41)	4.41	.01*	.10
	Low	2.20 (88.79)	.91 (.40)	2.27	.10	.05
Communicability (communicability error)	High	3 (114)	9.89 (.50)	19.61	.00*	.34
	Low	3 (120)	1.36 (.47)	2.86	.04*	.07
Testing potentiality (testing potentiality error)	High	3 (114)	6.19 (.29)	21.11	.00*	.36
	Low	2.31 (92.42)	3.62 (.68)	5.28	.01*	.12

Notes. *the mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 29 demonstrated that with a one-way repeated measures ANOVA, there was a statistically significant difference among the mean ratings of four distinctive English accented speeches (e.g. American English, Indian English, Chinese English and Thai English) by the high EFL learners under the trait of personness ($F(3,114)=4.41$, $p=.01$, $\eta_p^2=.10$); under the trait of communicability ($F(3,114)=19.61$, $p=.00$, $\eta_p^2=.34$); under the testing potentiality trait ($F(3,114)=21.11$, $p=.01$, $\eta_p^2=.36$). For the low EFL learners, there was no significant difference among the English-accented speech mean ratings under the trait of personness whereas a statistically significant difference was found under the trait of communicability ($F(3,120)=2.86$, $p=.04$, $\eta_p^2=.07$), and testing potentiality ($F(2.31,92.42)=5.28$, $p=.01$, $\eta_p^2=.12$).

Table 30

Post-hoc analysis on English accented speeches by high EFL achievers

English accented speech		Mean diff.	SE	<i>p</i>	95% confident interval for difference	
(1)	(2)				Lower bound	Upper bound
The personness trait						
Am	In	.35	.13	.06	-.01	.71
	Ch	.51	.17	.03*	.03	.99
	Th	.33	.12	.06	-.01	.68
In	Ch	-.16	.14	1.00	-.24	.56
	Th	-.02	.14	1.00	-.40	.37
Ch	Th	-.18	.15	1.00	-.61	.25
The communicability trait						
Am	In	.81	.19	.00*	.27	1.35
	Ch	1.21	.17	.00*	.74	1.68
	Th	.70	.16	.00*	.27	1.14
In	Ch	.40	.14	.04*	.01	.78
	Th	-.11	.16	1.00	-.56	.34
Ch	Th	-.51	.14	.01*	-.89	-.12
The test potentiality trait						
Am	In	.42	.12	.01*	.07	.76
	Ch	.76	.12	.00*	.44	1.08
	Th	-.11	.13	1.00	-.47	.26
In	Ch	.34	.11	.02*	.04	.65
	Th	-.52	.14	.01*	-.92	-.13
Ch	Th	-.87	.11	.00*	-1.17	-.56

Notes. * $p < .05$

With further Bonferri post-hoc analysis, Table 30, additionally, discovered a significant difference on the mean ratings between American English and Chinese English by the high EFL learners under the trait of personness. Besides this, by the high EFL learners, almost all pairs among four different English accented speech had a statistically significant difference on the meaning ratings, except one pair between Indian English and Thai English under the trait of communicability and another between American English and Thai English under the trait of testing potentiality.

Table 31

Post-hoc analysis on English accented speeches by low EFL achievers

English accented speech		Mean diff.	SE	<i>p</i>	95% confident interval for difference	
(1)	(2)				Lower bound	Upper bound
The communicability trait						
Am	In	.39	.16	.02*	.07	.70
	Ch	.33	.15	.03*	.04	.63
	Th	.12	.15	.43	-.18	.42
In	Ch	-.05	.16	.74	-.37	.27
	Th	-.27	.16	.11	-.60	.06
Ch	Th	-.21	.14	.12	-.49	.06
The test potentiality trait						
Am	In	.20	.12	.50	-.11	.51
	Ch	.30	.17	.51	-.17	.76
	Th	-.30	.17	.50	-.75	.17
In	Ch	1.00	.17	1.00	-.38	.57
	Th	-.49	.19	.08	-1.02	.04
Ch	Th	-.59	.14	.00*	-1.00	-.19

Notes. * $p < .05$

For the low EFL learners, as illustrated by Table 31, post-hoc analysis found that there was a statistically significant difference of the mean rating when comparing American English to Indian English and Chinese English under the communicability trait whereas a significant difference of the mean ratings between Chinese English and Thai English was found under the trait of testing potentiality.

Table 32

The percent of high and low English achievers' identification of the origin country

Speeches	Rank	High EFL level		Low EFL level	
		country	percent	country	percent
Am	1 st	USA	33%	USA	24%
	2 nd	England	20%	England	22%
	3 rd	Australia	15%	Australia	17%
In	1 st	India	41%	USA	17%
	2 nd	Philippines	12%	China	14%
	3 rd	England	10%	Australia	12%
Ch	1 st	Thailand	33%	Thailand	29%
	2 nd	Philippines	20%	Philippines	24%
	3 rd	Singapore	10%	Singapore	12%
Th	1 st	Thailand	82%	Thailand	75%
	2 nd	Singapore	5%	England	10%
	3 rd	USA	5%	USA	5%

Table 32 demonstrated how effective high and low EFL learners were capable of identifying where each speaker originally comes from. Of the total number of high EFL achievers, 33 percent accurately predicted that the American-English speaker was from America whereas 20 percent thought she was from England and 15 percent thought she came from Australia. Additionally, of the same group, 41 percent

accurately identified the origin country that Indian-English speaker came from was India, followed by 12 percent for Philippines, and 10 percent for England. Besides this, around 33 percent of this group agreed that the Chinese-English speech might be from Thailand, while 20 percent thought Philippines was her original place, and 10 percent thought she came from Singapore. For the Thai-English speaker, over 80 percent of all high EFL achievers accurately identified she were originally born in Thailand, followed by only 5% predicting Singapore and America were her birth place.

Of the total number of low EFL achievers, 24 percent thought the American-English speaker originally came from America, followed by 22 percent for England, and 17 percent for Australia. When being asked about where the Indian-English speaker was from, 17 percent guessed for America, 14 percent for China, and Australia for 12 percent. For the Chinese-English speaker, 29 percent predicted she was from Thailand whereas 24 percent and 12 percent guessed she came from Philippines, and Singapore, respectively. For the local English speech, over 70 percent identified Thailand, followed by only 10 percent for England and 5 percent for America.

4.5.2 Discussion of the research question no. 5

The fifth objective of the study is to explore the attitudes of Thai learners in both high and low EFL levels towards World Englishes speeches under three main traits: personness, communicability, and testing potentiality. World Englishes speeches represented by American English, Indian English, Chinese English, and Thai English were served as the listening stimuli of the listening achievement test in the study. Based the result of the study, it can be discussed as follows:

(a) Personness Trait

The results firstly suggested that the responses of EFL learners to the trait of personness seemed to vary, depending on the experience and the language proficiency of the learners. In general, it is notable that the high EFL learners preferred American English in terms of both social status (e.g. intelligent, educated, and elegant) and social attractiveness (e.g. reliable, friendly, and sincere) rather than the low EFL achievers did. This result was supported by several studies on the English accented speech attitude under the Thai context. For example, McKenzie, Kittikanan and Boriboon (2016), one

of the previous current studies, investigated Thai learners' attitudes towards southern US English, Thai English, Chinese English, Indian English and other varieties of English accented speech through the verbal-guise technique. Their findings suggested that the majority of Thai learners evaluated Southern US English and Thai English in terms of the warmth or solidarity. Additionally, the findings of Boonyarattapan (2006) also showed that the Thai test-takers have more positive attitude towards American English in both social status and solidarity through the method of modified matched guise. Besides this, Suppatkul (2009) also revealed that Thai high school learners rated American English in the highest mean score in both social status and solidarity when comparing to Thai English and Filipino English through the verbal-guise test.

(b) Communicability Trait

The findings secondly suggested that the American-English accented speech was significantly ranked as the first preferable variety by both high and low EFL achievers in terms of communicability. This finding is consistent to some previous current research. To illustrate, the study on Thai perceptions of Inner Circle Englishes conducted by Snodin and Young (2015) showed that Thai learners thought that American English was mainly used as a model for communication, and it was the most preferred English variety among Thai learners when comparing to British English, Australian English, and New Zealand English. Besides this, Thai learners preferred American English, as obviously seen from the mean scores above the midpoint of the scale, because this variety was more fluent, clearer, better in intonation, and more pleasure to listen than the others were.

Besides this, the respondents of the study placed the highest rating on Thai English in terms of the ease of understanding. The finding was line with the current literature by McKenzie et al.(2016) who found that Southern US were highly evaluated by Thai learners as the first rank in terms of competence (e.g. clearness, and fluency), followed by Thai English. In the perception of Expanding circle English listeners, Evan and Imai (2011) showed that Japanese feel more familiar with US English than any other varieties whereas Canada and Australia have an accent together with being in low familiarity level. In the study of Kaur (2013), it is not surprising that native English

accents were viewed in more positive ways in terms of correctness, acceptability, pleasantness and familiarity than non-native English accents because these Malaysian teachers believe that the norm provider and the model of English in textbook are reserved by inner-circle English speakers.

(c) Testing Potentiality Trait

The findings indicated that Thai English is the most preferred variety for the listening test for Thai test takers in the high and low EFL level. They thought that Thai English was more familiar, acceptable, and advantageous for them while taking a test. They also preferred Thai English to be included in the listening test, followed by American English. The most anxious variety for them when taking a test was Indian English and Chinese English.

Under the language testing area, the preference on L1-shared English speech might cause the test bias, which causes unequal accessibility to the test on the eyes of the test-takers and stakeholders (Kunnan, 2014). The empirical evidence from Abeywickrama (2013) and Hamid (2014) revealed that their respondents felt that a test taker who shared the same language as the speaker will gain the advantage over others who did not. Most of the participants thought the type of speech input might cause test bias. It can be said that familiarity to the everyday English accented speech becomes one remarkable affective factor, influencing the test takers' accessibility of listening and their success or failure to understand the spoken text. The study suggested that using three main World Englishes-circle speeches in the listening comprehension positively advocates the test authenticity, but skeptically causes unfairness for multi-national test takers.

(d) The identification of original place

The final result of the study discovered that most Thai EFL achievers accurately identified the origin place of their own L1-shared English speaker. This is consistent with the study of Jindapitak and Teo (2012) whose Thai subjects provided the most percentage of the correct identification of the original place on Thai English. This might

be because Thai English is more easily found and heard in classrooms and everyday conversations under the Thai context than any other English accented speeches.

The result also demonstrated that there was the small proportion of the correct identification on the American-English and Indian-English speakers' original place. This is similar to the study of Jindapitak and Teo (2012) and Boonyarattapan (2006), which found that less than fifty percent of the total Thai respondents could successfully recognize the original place of other types of English accented speeches. However, it can be noticed from the research result that Thai EFL achievers could place American-English and Indian-English speakers' original place in the proper World Englishes zone of Inner-Circle countries (e.g. USA, UK, and Australia) and Outer-Circle countries (e.g. India, and the Philippines). Their prediction might be reliant upon the policy of Thai government welcoming foreign teachers from seven countries: USA, UK, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, India, and the Philippines to English classes in order to improve Thai learners' English and broaden their international cultural view, according to the local newspaper, *Kom Chad Luek* in 2011.

Interestingly, the result of the study also revealed that most of Thai informants could not recognize the country origin of Chinese English, one Expanding Circle English more accurately and successfully than they did on the other three varieties (e.g. American-English, Indian-English, and Thai-English). Their prediction might be aligned with their experience with English-class teachers who mostly came from the Inner-Circle and Outer-Circle English countries. More specifically, it was hardly found EFL teachers in English classes under the Thai educational context, except its local teachers. Thus, this might lead Thai learners to place the Chinese-English into other two possible country options like the Philippines and Singapore. This is supported by the study of Suppatkul (2009) who showed three varieties of non-Inner-Circle English speeches frequently found in Bangkok Educational Service Area were Filipino, Singaporean, and Malaysian.

All in all, this result is discussed by the finding of Jindapitak and Teo (2012) in terms of the awareness of Thai learners towards World Englishes. They discovered that Thai learners had less sufficient awareness of World Englishes speeches since the less percentage of accuracy on the identification of English-accented speakers' country

origin was found. They claimed that it was hard for students who had no much experience with World Englishes speakers to accurately and confidently identify the speakers' country of origin.



CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter V aims to provide the research summary as well as the summary of the research findings and also to present the implications for pedagogical and language testing areas and recommendation for further research.

5.1 Research summary

Assessing listening is one of the most crucial areas of language testing and assessment, yet listening competence becomes the least understood, least developed skill (Brunfaut, 2016). That is because listening skill is one of the receptive skill, associated with the test takers' cognitive process interacting between the bottom-up and the top-down processes together with prior knowledge in order to interpret the speakers' verbal inputs in both explicit and implicit ways. There have been a few studies such as Boonyarattapan (2006) and Jaturapitakkul (2007) emphasizing test takers' linguistic, non-linguistic knowledge and some useful test taking strategies on the listening test under the Thai context. Therefore, the study aimed to investigate three main variables: English-accented speeches, specific content knowledge, and test-taking strategies, assumedly influential on the listening comprehension of Thai learners who were widely different in terms of the EFL proficiency level: high and low EFL achievers. This apparently led to five research questions as follows:

- a) To what extent do different English accented speeches affect the listening comprehension ability test scores of high and low English achievers?
- b) To what extent does test-takers' specific content knowledge affect their listening comprehension ability test scores of high and low English achievers?
- c) What are the test-taking strategies used by high and low English achievers in the listening test?

- d) Is there any relationship among English accented speeches, specific content knowledge and test-taking strategies on listening comprehension ability test scores of high and low English achievers?
- e) What are the attitudes of both high and low English achievers towards using English accented speech in the listening test?

As noticed, three main variables in the study theoretically represented some essential elements of listening proficiency. Specifically speaking, the first variable of the study, English-accented speeches, is viewed as one part of linguistic knowledge whereas its second variable, specific content knowledge, demonstrate one part of non-linguistic knowledge and the last variable, test-taking strategies, infer the mental process of the strategic competence use.

The first focus of the study was on English-accented speeches. The varieties of English: China, India, and America were selected from the United Nations' world statistic record of the most populated countries in 2014. These three countries are explicitly compatible with the three main circles of World Englishes according to the Kachruvian paradigm: Inner circle, Outer circle, and Expanding circle countries. This study also included Thai-English accented speech, locally spoken and generally found in Thailand. Consequently, in the study, the listening inputs of the listening comprehension test were uttered by the four speakers who were asked to read out the different assigned scripts with the almost equal lecturing speed rate and text readability index at the language sound studio. These speakers must also possess the following equivalent qualifications: (a) the same gender--female; (b) educational background--at least bachelor degree; (c) appropriate English proficiency level--550 scores of TOEFL; and (d) the genuine speakers, representing the World Englishes concentric zones. For the last qualification, the speakers must be born, raised, and studied English in their own countries during the early childhood. Besides the effect on English accented speeches, the listeners' attitude on English accented speech was also one important element to achieve the listening comprehension. It is believed that the positive or negative attitude of the listeners under three main traits: personness,

communicability, and testing potentiality towards English-accented speeches might support or impede the achievement of listening comprehension.

The second focus of the study was on specific content knowledge, taken from two main different contexts, which are related and unrelated to the CA course syllabus. The content of the listening input was drawn from two main educational areas: Communication Arts and Business Laws. The listening comprehension for the main study consists of two main parts: (a) Questions and Responses, including 16 items; and (b) Mini lecture comprising 32 items. In each part of the listening comprehension test, a half of the total number of the listening texts was taken from the CA course under the topic of newspaper, magazine, radio, and film. Another half was selected from the textbook of the Business Law course about intellectual properties, excluded from the Communication Arts faculty curriculum and assumedly unfamiliar to the research participants. All listening texts were controlled by length (approximately 182 words) and readability index (approximately 12.9 that is leveled for college students by Gunning's Fog Index and SMOG grade).

The final variable of the study was the test-taking strategies under the framework of Cohen (2012) comprising listening strategies (e.g. cognition, metacognition and affection), test management strategies, and test wiseness strategies. These were transformed into the 33-item 5-point Likert scale questionnaire.

In the research methodology, there were three key types of the instruments implemented to answer the five research questions: the listening comprehension test, the questionnaires on test-taking strategies as well as attitudes towards English-accented speeches, and retrospective semi-structured interview. These instruments were passed through the process of validity such as the experts' validation, the pilot study and the developmental phases. The finalized research instruments were completed by 80 third-year undergraduates from the faculty of Communication Arts. They were divided into two groups of English proficiency levels: 39 high and 41 low EFL achievers, with regard to the criteria of z score of ± 1 from their total scores of two prerequisite English courses.

The main study was proceeded at the beginning of the first semester with the stage of asking research participants to take the pre-listening comprehension test, and

then to complete the attitudinal questionnaire on the varieties of Englishes to answer the first, the fourth, and the final research questions. After attending the CA course for twelve weeks, the research participants were asked to take the post-listening comprehension test, and then to complete the questionnaire on the use of the test-taking strategies. Then, at the fourteenth week, ten high and ten low EFL achievers were voluntarily selected for retrospective semi-structured interview, which was audio recorded under the consent of each participant. The process helped the researcher to answer the rest of the research questions.

Regarding the data analysis, four main types of the inferential statistic: (a) the one-way ANOVA with repeated measure; (b) the paired sample T-test; (c) Person Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, and (d) content analysis were used to test the research hypotheses and to seek some in-depth information. More specifically, to investigate the effect of English-accented speeches on listening comprehension and to explore the use of test-taking strategies and the attitude towards four different types of English-accented speeches, the one-way ANOVA with repeated measure was exploited. To examine the effect of specific content knowledge on listening comprehension, the paired sample T-test was exploited to compare the mean scores of pre-and post-listening comprehension. To discover the linear relationship among English-accented speeches, specific content knowledge and test-taking strategies, the Pearson correlation coefficient was employed. At last, one of the qualitative analysis methods, the content analysis, was used to seek some insight information from retrospective semi-structured interview in using the test-taking strategies to understand the listening texts and overcome some difficulties found in the listening test tasks.

5.2 Summary of the research findings

Regarding the first research question, the finding showed that with one way repeated-measures ANOVA, there was a significant main effect of English accented speeches on listening comprehension by high EFL achievers ($F(3,114) = 7.05, p < .05$). However, there was no significant differences among four different varieties of English accented speech done by low EFL achievers on listening comprehension ($F(3,120) =$

2.19, $p = .09$). According to the post hoc analysis, Thai-English accented speech had the statistically significant impact on listening comprehension when compared to Indian ($M=5.54$, $SD=1.83$) and Chinese-English accented speech ($M=5.77$, $SD=1.63$) at $p < .05$, whereas no significant difference between Thai-English and American-English was found. Based on the descriptive statistic, there was the similar trend of listening comprehension mean scores affected by English-accented speech between high and low EFL achievers. Interestingly, this result was consistent with Boonyarattapan (2006), Barlow (2009), Harding (2011), and Moinzadeh et al. (2012) who discovered that Inner-Circle Englishes and the L1-shared English accented speech had the significant impact on listening comprehension. However, the result seemed to contradict with Abeywickrama (2013) who found no significant effect of the varieties of English as listening inputs on listening comprehension with the reason of the participant's diverse nationalities, purpose of studying abroad and different degree of text difficulty.

Based on the second research question, The paired-samples t test showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test mean scores of high EFL achievers affected by CA content knowledge whereas no significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test mean scores of theirs affected by non-CA content was found ($t(38) = -2.96$, $p = .01$). That is, the CA content knowledge made a significant impact on listening comprehension of the high EFL achiever group but non-CA content knowledge did not. For the low EFL learners, even though no significant impact of the CA content knowledge on listening comprehension was found, they received the higher mean score on the post-test than on the pre-test. The result of the study was in line with the theoretical concept of Long (1990), Buck (2001), Field (2008), and Li (2014) in terms of compensatory knowledge and the topic familiarity.

According to the third research question, one way repeated-measures ANOVA with a Greenhouse-Geisser correction showed that there was a significant difference of the high EFL achievers' mean ratings across three main elements of test-taking strategies: listening, test management, and test wiseness ($F(1.33, 50.66) = 4.79$, $p < 0.05$) on listening comprehension whereas no significant difference of the low EFL achievers' mean ratings was found among three main elements of test-taking

strategies. More speaking, the high EFL achievers provided the significant higher mean rating on test-management strategies than on listening strategies at $p < .05$ based on further Bonferri post-hoc analysis. Besides this, the content analysis also demonstrated that the high EFL achievers tended to report more essential listening strategies and test-management strategies than the low EFL achievers did to accomplish the listening comprehension tasks. The result of the study is consistent with the theoretical concept of Cohen (2014) and Buck (2001) and the related research studies of Piamsai (2014), Pan and In'nami (2015), and W. T. Rogers and Yang (1996) that the strategic use can vary, depending upon the response formats and the construct of the listening test, and EFL learners' strategic skill level.

For the fourth research question, the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient demonstrated three main findings as follows: firstly, there was a statistically significant linear relationship between American-English accented speeches and test-wisness strategies in negative way ($r = -.32, n = 39, p < .05$) by high English proficient learners in order to achieve the listening comprehension test. Likewise, a statistically significant linear relationship between Thai-English accented speeches and test-wisness strategies in negative way ($r = -.35, n = 41, p < .05$) was found on the mean ratings of the low EFL achievers. Secondly, the low EFL achievers provided a statistically significant linear relationship between English accented speeches and specific content knowledge in the negative direction at the alpha level of .05. Finally, it was demonstrated that both high and low EFL achievers provided the mean ratings within the three main elements of test taking strategies in the positive correlation at the significant level of .05. The results of the study was similar to the concept of Brunfaut (2016) and Was and Woltz (2007) in terms of working memory capacity and can be discussed under the interactive compensatory framework by M. Rost and J. Wilson (2013) and Field (2004).

Concerning the final research question, the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that there was a statistically significant difference among the high EFL learners' mean ratings of four distinctive English accented speeches (e.g. American English, Indian English, Chinese English and Thai English) under the trait of personness ($F(3,114) = 4.41, p = .01$); under the trait of communicability ($F(3,114) = 19.60, p = .00$);

under the testing potentiality trait ($F(3,114) = 21.11, p = .01$). Additionally, the low EFL learners provided a statistically significant difference of their mean ratings under the trait of communicability ($F(3,120) = 2.86, p = .04$), and testing potentiality ($F(2.31,92.42) = 5.28, p = .01$) whereas there was no significant difference among the English-accented speech mean ratings under the trait of personness. Last but not least, both high and low EFL achievers identified the origin place of their own L1-shared English speaker more accurately than that of other English-accented speakers. The results of the study was similar to Snodin and Young (2015), McKenzie, Kititkaran, and Boriboon (2016) in terms of the Inner Circle English preference, and Jindapitak and Teo (2012) in terms of EFL learners' awareness of English accented speeches around the world.

5.3 Implications of the findings

The results of the study demonstrated that there were the effects of three main variables: English-accented speech, specific content knowledge, and test-taking strategies on listening comprehension of Thai EFL learners. It is implied that the three main variables of the study play the vital roles for EFL learners to achieve listening comprehension. The implications of the results are presented under three main domains: pedagogy, language testing, and the connection between both of them.

5.3.1 Pedagogical domain

In class, the teachers of the English courses should train their EFL learners to simultaneously operate all three main areas of knowledge: contextual, linguistic, and schematic (White, 2008) with the assistance of the strategic use when they receive a spoken message in order to help them achieve listening comprehension.

In terms of contextual and linguistic knowledge, to open their opportunity to explore World Englishes, students should be encouraged to listen critically either to a tape recording of, or to other guest speakers with the varieties of English to advocate the pluralist concept. Teachers must invest their time on the production and development of the course listening materials to respond with the framework of World Englishes or provide some assignments for their students to critically listen to some

more authentic materials e.g. international interview or movie reviews produced with celebrities' English varieties. In this way, teachers allowed students to think globally and act locally with response to the course syllabus (McKay, 2007). The crucial consequence of this is students are plausibly able to capture some different features of World Englishes speeches they are listening and well-prepared to the varieties of Englishes. Not only this, it helps foster and shape the positive attitude towards the use of English varieties. Garrett (2010) contended that favorable attitudes of learners towards language may enhance the high level of language achievement in some particular purposes.

In terms of schematic knowledge, the course listening materials should be designed and included a variety of international topics from authentic sources related to the particular English course. These help students analyze how discourse is organized and observe the factual knowledge of the topic which is being talked about. Randall (2007) asserted that schema or background knowledge can be formulated along with a flow of information from the stimuli in the environment through a short-lived sensory register into the working memory passed on a long term permanent, stored about the world from our experience (semantic memory), cumulative experience (episodic memory) and automatic procedure involved in skilled behavior (the procedure memory). As an effective listener, they must simultaneously bring out these types of memory to overcome the obstacle they encounter during listening comprehension.

Last but not least, the instruction of strategic use is another additional approach boosting the effective listeners to challengingly deal with some difficulties of the listening tasks. Regarding the integrated approach by Flowerdew and Miller (2005), listening practices in the textbooks or teacher-made materials should be organized with the series of pre-listening, during-listening, and post-listening activities. Listening tasks should be included with the six core skills: (a) listen for details, (b) listening selectively, (c) listen for global, (d) listen for main ideas, (e) listen and infer, and (f) listen and predict (Goh, 2014). Moreover, the learners must be aware of factors that foster or impede them to improve their listening ability through their self-critical evaluation with assistance with the teachers' feedback and recommendation, possibly

happening in the post-listening stage. These approaches might foster students to be an active listener. Rebecca L. Oxford (1990) postulated that strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make listening easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to various situations. Good listeners should have the capacity of implementing a number of strategies which vary according to the purpose of listening activities and types of listening, in which they are engaged (Griffiths, 2008). Several studies (e.g. Liu, 2016; Matthews & Cheng, 2015) confirmed the effectiveness of using listening strategies to enhance the performance on listening tasks with less anxiety.

As aforementioned, through the effective instruction of listening skill and the careful design of course listening materials, it is expected that EFL learners show more awareness of the existence of World Englishes speeches and the familiarity with multicultural contexts and international topics, and construct their confidence to deal with the listening tasks with effective selection of strategic use. This makes a valuable contribution to Thai EFL learners' listening skill improvement for their life-long learning.

5.3.2. Language testing domain

The results of the study revealed that Thai EFL learners put an effort to employ all types of their language repertoire: linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge together with test-taking strategies to achieve the listening comprehension test. The implications from the study can be illustrated under the language testing domain as follows:

Initially, one crucial aspect that language assessors and test developers should take into account is the purpose and the construct of the test when designing the teacher-made listening achievement test. For example, the listening test of this study was constructed based on the course syllabus and aimed to measure how well learners can achieve the objective of the course in terms of listening skill. The listening comprehension test was designed as an English achievement test. Through the analytic process of test piloting, validity and reliability, the test developers can ensure the accuracy of the interpreting the test scores based on the purpose and the construct of test that the test aimed to be measured.

Secondly, under the target language use domain, the ‘authenticity’ of the test sometimes reflects the use of language in the real world situation. One feature that makes the listening comprehension test authentic is the listening test tasks. The test tasks including English accented speeches and some specific contents can be produced to increase the degree of test authenticity because they show the high capacity of simulating the target language use situations like in academic lectures by multi-national teachers or in daily conversations under multicultural contexts.

However, the fact is it is impossible for test developers to bring all of real-world situations into one test (Douglas, 2000). This might lead to the argument on test bias or test fairness through the eyes of all test takers in terms of unequal accessibility (Kunnan, 2014). More specifically, it is impossible to integrate all varieties of English accented speeches around the world in one achievement test to reflect the pluralistic situation even though the varieties of English-accented speech included in the listening comprehension test are able to maximize the degree of test authenticity. One alternative solution of this is turning to specify the characteristics of the prospective test takers of the test. In this study, all of the test takers were homogeneous in terms of nationality, cultural background, educational levels, and age. According the result of the study, when EFL learners frequently heard some particular types of English accented speeches such as Inner-Circle Englishes in the the textbooks and the L1-shared English speech until they start getting accustomed to them, feel easy to understand and tend to accept those types of speeches as the spoken input of the listening test. However, some Outer-Circle Englishes like Indian-English and Expanding-Circle Englishes like Chinese-English made Thai EFL test takers anxious and uncomfortable to listen until they tend to not accept these speeches as the listening test input. This might easily assist the language test developers and teachers to make decision what types of English accented speeches should be included in the listening achievement test in order to maximize the awareness of English as an international language. It is certain that focusing narrowly on Inner-Circle Englishes might not respond to the pluralistic situation. Regarding the world population record, EFL learners have chances to meet more non-inner circle English speakers than Inner-Circle English ones. It implies that the classroom test becomes one powerful tool to help minimize

the degree of the test bias through the lens of EFL test takers. Keep in mind that the construct of the classroom test should be reliant on the objective of the course and the university curriculum responding to English as an international language in order to boost the validity of the test (Wagner, 2014). In this case, the classroom test might be referred to any types of teacher-made listening assessment, assisting EFL test takers more accessible to the varieties of English-accented speech.

Furthermore, some specific content knowledge can also increase the degree of test bias. The study found that one type of specific content knowledge assisted the test takers gain more benefit on the listening comprehension test than another type of specific content knowledge. That mean, subject knowledge interferes with the measurement of language knowledge. This result can be applied in the process of test design under two main language testing domains: the English test for general purposes or specific purposes. Douglas (2000) claimed that English tests can be designed and developed in the continuum of specificity from very general to very specific, depending on the purpose of the test and what to be intentionally measured. More specific content knowledge with technical vocabularies should be placed in the listening comprehension test when the language assessors aimed to measure the test takers' specific purpose language ability. For the English test for specific purpose, its content and test methods were derived from an analysis of specific language use situation and the interaction between language knowledge and background knowledge is in focus as one important feature to achieve this type of testing. On the other hand, for the English test for general purpose, a variety of the specific contents as the listening inputs should be constructed in the proper proportion to measure the English proficiency in general. The test takers are likely to have equal chance to face several specific contents from different academic fields to maximize the test fairness.

Last but not least, test developers should be aware of the skilled and unskilled test takers in the strategic use. The test items should be carefully designed, piloted and developed to minimize the test-wiseness strategies, assisting test takers in responding to items and task in the meaningless ways by using the knowledge of test formats without engaging the knowledge on the targeted language skill area to increase the test score (Cohen, 2014). The test takers' knowledge, experience and training on

the particular format of the listening test like multiple-choice question items might affect one main threat of the construct validity: construct irrelevant variance (Messick, 1988).

5.3.3 The connection between instruction and language testing domains

In every instructional system, language tests are used as an important tool for test stakeholders (e.g. schools, teachers, test takers, etc.) to measure or summarize test takers' language ability for some particular purposes (e.g. placement, proficiency, diagnosis, or achievement). The notion of 'test to teach' enhances both teachers and students to evaluate themselves what kinds of weakness they should improve or what kinds of language skills should be supplemented in order to sustain the lifelong learning for future education and career.

However, language tests sometimes play more vital role than they are expected to be. In some occasions, the scores interpretation of these tests was set as the criteria, influential to either macro-levels of education and society or micro-levels of language teaching and learning (Cheng & Curtis, 2012). Under this circumstance, the notion 'teach to test' should inevitably be taken into account. Because the language test score result becomes one of the significant decision makers on test stakeholders' future education, occupation or reputation, the preparation courses for the particular (high-stakes) tests like the standardized English proficiency test or the university examination was established. Even, test-taking strategies were more heavily focused and trained to test takers in order to enhance them to accomplish their education goals in response to test washback and impact.

5.4 Recommendation for further studies

The recommendations for further studies are provided as follows:

This study was motivated by the theory that the achievement on listening comprehension can be affected by several key factors such as English accented speech, specific content knowledge, and test-taking strategies. It is recommended that

further studies should investigate heavily the established theory on the relationships among these three main variables through structure equation modeling (SEM).

The finding of the study indicated that Thai EFL achievers might accept Thai-English accented speech as spoken input on listening comprehension, especially on test potentiality traits. It is recommended that the further research should implement the factor analysis instrument to create the valid set of adjectives or more appropriate words for the testing potentiality trait. Not only this, some triangulation methods such as verbal protocol or open-ended interview should be conducted to gain some in-depth information for further test development.

In this study, the listening comprehension test was well-established in forms of the multiple choices. For further studies, it is recommended that other alternative formats of assessing listening such as filling the gaps or the writing summary should be investigated under the framework of test-wiseness strategies, viewed as one threat of construct validity by both qualitative and quantitative methods for the test task and item development.

Last but not least, in terms of the empirical validity, further studies should be conducted on the relationship of the test results on listening comprehension and some other forms of measurement such as teachers' ratings on the class observation and formative assessment, or some standardized tests. In this way, if the test scores from the listening comprehension test are associated with some other measurement results, then the test is considered concurrently to be valid.

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Appendix A: Course Syllabus

มหาวิทยาลัยธุรกิจบัณฑิตย์

Course Number CA 207 **Course Title** English for Communication Arts **No. of Credit** 3**Faculty** Communication Arts **Course Type** Core Course **Prerequisite** English 2

Course Description Practice in four main English skills (e.g. listening comprehension, reading comprehension, writing skill, and presentation) with mass communication materials such as newspaper, advertisement, articles, etc. with an emphasis on the main ideas, vocabularies, idiomatic expressions, and writing styles

Semester	First	Academic Year	2010	Student Class	Third-year
Head Group	Dr. Usa Rungrotkankha	7 th F. building	12	02-954-7300 Ext.	544
Instructors	Aj. Natee Merakate	9th Fl. Bldg.	5	02-954-7300 Ext.	184
	Aj. Palinee Supat	9th Fl. Bldg.	5	02-954-7300 Ext.	184

Core Competencies and Behavioral Objectives

1. **Communication Skill:** students will gain an understanding of communication processes, improve their communication skills, and learn to express their ideas more clearly.
2. **Knowledge and Understanding:** students will increase their understanding of basic communication and media principles and of various media contexts.
3. **Ethical Development:** students will develop personal values for ethical behavior such as avoiding plagiarism (copying) and cheating.
4. **Interpersonal Relationships and Responsibility:** students will develop human relationship and leadership skills through small group discussions and group assignments.

5. **Technological Skill:** students will use technological tools such as Microsoft Word and/or PowerPoint to complete assignments.

Teaching Method

Teaching Method	Percentage	Teaching Method	Percentage
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Lecture	30	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Short Presentation	10
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Small group discussion	20	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Dictation	10
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Exercises & quizzes	10	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Internet-based Learning	10
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Role-playing & Game	10		

Evaluation The final grade for students in this course will be determined by the results of mid-term and final exams, class attendance, in-class participation, written and listening assignments and a presentation. Plagiarism (copying) will not be tolerated. **Plagiarism will result in a score of 0.** Lateness will also not be tolerated: assignments will not be accepted after their due date.

Overall evaluation will be graded as follows:

Quizzes (2*5)	10 %
Class assignment	10 %
Listening test	10%
Simulated Presentation	10%
Midterm Examination	30 %
Final Examination	30 %
Total	100 %

Course Requirement Student should attend at least 80 % of class attendance (maximum number of absences = 6 times.) Attendance will be checked and at the start of each class. Students who are 10 minutes late will have their name recorded as late for that class. 2 cases of lateness will be recorded as 1 day absent. Appropriate documents must be submitted to the class instructor in case of absence from class.

Course Material English for Communication Arts: CA 207 (Compiled & arranged by Aj. Wilawan Waropas)

Instructional Materials

- PowerPoint presentation
- Audio CDs
- Newspapers and magazines
- Supplementary handouts
- Materials from the Internet
- Dictionaries

Related Website

- <http://www.student-weekly.com>
- <http://www.nationmultimedia.com>
- <http://www.bbc.co.uk/thai/learningenglish>
- <http://www.bangkokpost.com>



Appendix B: Listening comprehension Test

(For test takers in the main study)

In the listening test, you will be asked to demonstrate how well you understand spoken English. There are two parts in the test and directions given for each part. The entire listening test will last approximately 45 minutes. You must mark your answers on the separate answer sheet. You are allowed to take note in your test book.

Part 1: Question and Response

Directions: You will hear each question with three responses. When you hear three choices of responses, you must choose one choice of responses that provides the correct answer for each question. Then put a cross (X) on a, b, or c on your answer sheet. Both questions and three choices of responses will not be printed in your test book and they will be **spoken** for you **only once**.

For example, you will hear:

A: Excuse me, Linda. Can you tell me what the SFX is about?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

a) Perhaps it is related to shooting and positioning.

b) I think it deals with music and sound effect.

c) Yes, I agree. The AFS is a good scholarship.

The correct answer to this question is choice **(b)** because SFX stands for sound effect. You have to put a cross (X) on choice **(b)** in your answer sheet.

	A	B	C
1		X	

Now let's listen to teach question. You have to choose one best response.

- 1) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 2) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 3) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 4) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 5) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 6) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 7) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 8) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 9) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 10) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 11) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 12) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 13) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 14) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 15) Mark your answer on your answer sheet
- 16) Mark your answer on your answer sheet

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Next page

Part 2: Long talks

Directions: In this part of the test, you will hear longer talks. After each talk, you will hear four questions. The talks will NOT be printed in your test book and will be spoken for you only once. You are asked to read the question and four answer choices of each question and choose the best answer by putting a cross (X) on choice (a), (b), (c) or (d) in your answer sheet.

Now listen to the first talk and answer the question no. 17-20.

17. What is the speaker mainly talking about?

- a) The redesign of the magazine cover
- b) The number of magazines readers
- c) The survey of the readers' age
- d) The main cover lines in magazines

18. What information does the speaker mention **last**?

- a) Main image
- b) Dateline
- c) Selling line
- d) Masthead

19. Which statement best describes the 'main image'?

- a) The fixed price should be on its corner.
- b) It is like a main title of the story.
- c) The letters must be large and bold.
- d) One or more models are necessary.

20. Who would be most appropriate to give this talk?

- a) A screenwriter
- b) An editor
- c) A reporter
- d) A reviewer

Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 21-24.

21. What is the speaker mainly talking about?

- a) The extra information of bills
- b) The feature of cheques
- c) The importance of promissory notes
- d) The use of bills of exchange

22. What information does the speaker mention **first**?

- a) Similarities of some key words
- b) Meanings of each key word
- c) Time limitation of discussion
- d) People involving in each key word

23. Which of the following is NOT included in the bills based on the talk?

- a) Names of each party
- b) Office location of the registrar
- c) Specific amount of money
- d) Fixed time of payment

24. Who would be most appropriate to give this talk?

- a) A politician
- b) A human resources manager
- c) A financial director
- d) An engineer

Next page

Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 25-28

25. What is the main point of the talk?
- a) The advantages of making a film
 - b) The equipment for scenes
 - c) The course of making a film
 - d) The position of the camera
26. What best describes about the 'screenplay'?
- a) It shows a director the total outline of a movie.
 - b) It shows a director the movie's complete version.
 - c) It helps audiences easily get involved in the scene.
 - d) It helps audiences understand the film production.
27. Which information does the speaker mention **last**?
- a) Movie mis-en-scene
 - b) Movie sequencing
 - c) Camera position
 - d) Screenplay writing
28. Who would be the most appropriate audience in this talk?
- a) Students majoring in Public Relations
 - b) Students majoring in Radio and Broadcasting
 - c) Students majoring in Cinematography
 - d) Students majoring in Advertising Management

Next page

Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 29-32.

29. What is the main purpose of this talk?

- a) To introduce the way to protect new products
- b) To define key words related to invention patent
- c) To divide the categories of the petty patent
- d) To show the way to register a design patent

30. Which of the following is mentioned **last** in this talk?

- a) The types of patents
- b) The meanings of the word, patents
- c) The duration of a petty patent
- d) The example of a design patent

31. What kind of products is NOT protected by patent based on the talk?

- a) Machinery
- b) Footwear
- c) Systems
- d) Textbooks

32. Who would be the most appropriate audience in this talk?

- a) Industrial manufacturers
- b) Rock Musicians
- c) Stock brokers
- d) Fiction authors

Next page

Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 33-36.

33. What is the main purpose of the talk?
- a) To report the daily news around Bangkok
 - b) To tell the importance of the newspaper
 - c) To describe the layout of the newspaper front page
 - d) To explain the necessity of the newspaper publication
34. Where is the weather forecast based on the talk?
- a) At the bottom corner of the page
 - b) In the middle of the page
 - c) Around the top corner of the page
 - d) On the opposite side of the ears
35. Which of the followings is mentioned **last** in this talk?
- a) Deck
 - b) By-line
 - c) Masthead
 - d) Main headline
36. Who would be the most appropriate audience in this talk?
- a) Students majoring in Journalism writing
 - b) Students majoring in Advertising Management
 - c) Students majoring in Film Script Writing
 - d) Students majoring in Radio and Broadcasting

Next page

Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 37-40.

37. What is the main purpose of the talk?

- a) To compare trademarks and collective marks
- b) To overview the concept of trademarks
- c) To define the word, service marks
- d) To describe the concept of collective marks

38. What information does the speaker mention **last** in the talk?

- a) Service marks
- b) Trademarks
- c) Collective marks
- d) Certification marks

39. What best describe about 'certification marks'?

- a) To examine the standard of goods and services
- b) To prevent the use of logos confusing consumers
- c) To differentiate the members and non-member of goods and services
- d) To provide the original owner a license of books, journals or movies

40. Who is most likely to be the speaker of this talk?

- a) A financial manager
- b) A hotel receptionist
- c) A costume designer
- d) A brand specialist

Next page

Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 41-44.

41. What is the main point of talk?
- a) The main role of the radio
 - b) The way to buy the network radios
 - c) The way to write a radio commercial
 - d) The most appropriate channel for advertisement
42. Which information does the speaker mention **first**?
- a) Sound effect
 - b) Radio format
 - c) Spot radio time
 - d) Commercial content
43. What is the main advantage of 'music or sound effect' based on the talk?
- a) It alerts the audience's emotion and interest.
 - b) It gives the preparation time for the spokesperson.
 - c) It makes the quality of radio advertisement interesting.
 - d) It makes the radio station popular among particular listeners.
44. Who would be most appropriate to give this talk?
- a) A screenwriter
 - b) A broadcaster
 - c) A reviewer
 - d) A scriptwriter

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Now listen to the last talk to answer the question no. 45-48.

45. What is the main point of the talk?
- a) To promote local products to the public
 - b) To explain two key words of goods protection
 - c) To show the advantages of geographical indication
 - d) To compare between trade secret and geographical indication.
46. What best describes about 'trade secret'?
- a) The original place of production
 - b) The detail of the production process
 - c) The confidential business information
 - d) The country's trade income
47. Which of the following is mentioned **first** by the speaker?
- a) The meaning of the geographical indication
 - b) The examples of the geographical indication
 - c) The meaning of trade secret
 - d) The examples of trade secret
48. Who would be the most appropriate audience in this talk?
- a) Economists
 - b) Local entrepreneurs
 - c) Travel agents
 - d) Interior designers

The end

Tape Script of Listening Comprehension Test
(for the main study)

In the listening test, you will be asked to demonstrate how well you understand spoken English. There are two parts in the test and directions given for each part. The entire listening test will last approximately 45 minutes. You must mark your answers on the separate answer sheet. You are allowed to take note in your test book.

Part 1: Question and Response

Directions: You will hear each question with three responses. When you hear three choices of responses, you must choose one choice of responses that provides the correct answer for each question. Then put a cross (X) on a, b, or c on your answer sheet. Both questions and three choices of responses will not be printed in your test book and they will be **spoken** for you **only once**.

For example, you will hear:

A: Excuse me, Linda. Can you tell me what the SFX is about?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) Perhaps it is related to shooting and positioning.*
- b) I think it deals with music and sound effect.*
- c) Yes, I agree. The AFS is a good scholarship.*

The correct answer to this question is choice **(b)** because SFX stands for sound effect. You have to put a cross (X) on choice **(b)** in your answer sheet.

	A	B	C
1		X	

Now, let's listen to each question. You have to choose one best response.

(American speaker)

Question Number 1:

A: Do you know why the word '**main image**' is so important for a magazine?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) Of course, I can imagine it's important.
- b) Because the magazine can be damaged easily.
- c) **Because the teacher said it includes eye-contact that attracts the reader.**

Question Number 2:

A: Look at that. The camera sometimes goes back and forth when recording the actor. See, the actor gets bigger or smaller. Do you know what this method is called?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) **Yes, it is one movement of the camera, dolly**
- b) Yes, tilt makes the film more exciting.
- c) I have no idea what kind of shortcut this film making is.

Question Number 3:

A: Rachel, read this statement, 'AIA Company Limited will accept all **liabilities** for direct and indirect losses.' Do you know what the word **liability** means?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) Yes, it means they are very reliable.
- b) No, you would have to wait until it gets published.
- c) **Well, it's similar to the word 'legal responsibility'.**

Question Number 4:

A: Do you know what the legal term is for a person who is under the age of twenty years old?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) I don't think anyone is younger than that here, anyways.
- b) **Sure, it's called a 'minor'. Why do you ask?**
- c) You're right! I will be twenty next month.

(Indian speaker)

Question Number 5:

A: Yesterday Peter was assigned to be responsible for **props** in our play. Do you know what the **props** is about? (Narrator: What is the correct answer?)

- a) Sure, Peter might prefer the pop music.
- b) In this job, he thought the scenery is important.
- c) Oh, that means he takes care of stage equipment.**

Question Number. 6:

A: Look at this. Andrew sent some short movie clips to me via email yesterday. He said they are necessary for news report. What is it called?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) Really? These people are news anchors in the program.
- b) Oh, we call it 'footage'.**
- c) In my opinion this editorial content is so creative.

Question Number 7:

A: Yesterday, Mary said her father left her a big house in his will. What does the word, **will**, mean?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) It is not challenging anymore for them.
- b) I wish I could, but I bought the house yesterday.
- c) Oh, it is a document related to the law written before he died.**

Question Number 8:

A: When people agree to sign the contract together for some particular purpose, they have to follow the process stated by law. What is the term for this kind of activity?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) I heard that. This is a kind of juristic act.**
- b) I agree she has been acting strange all afternoon.
- c) I am supposed to do it one day.

(Chinese speaker)

Question Number 9:

A: Excuse me, Simon. In class, our teacher always kept focusing on the importance of the word, **lead**. Do you remember the meaning of the term '**Lead**'?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) That's OK. It is a kind of photograph on a page.
- b) Yes, It is the first paragraph of a news article.**
- c) I am not sure. You have to read the newspaper every day.

Question Number 10:

A: Sometimes, horrible photos can draw the reader's attention at first sight. Do you know the specific word of this photo attached to the news articles?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) Let me check. Oh, very easy. It is called, Cut.**
- b) Yes, you are right. They are terrifying captions.
- c) No, you cannot see any photos on the door.

Question Number 11:

A: Look at this terrible accident. It is said this was caused by negligence on the part of the driver. I don't understand what the word '**negligence**' is. Do you?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) Yes, sure. It is a kind of carelessness of doing something.**
- b) No, I found him in the parking lot yesterday.
- c) Certainly, what did you want to talk to me about?

Question Number 12:

A: Excuse me, Linda, do you know what kind of law that protects the right of our creation or invention from someone who want to copy our product in illegal way?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) Well, I am not quite sure but I think it is the Intellectual Property.**
- b) Yes, laws are very important for our society.
- c) I can't believe. The conference on trademarks is postponed again.

(Thai speaker) Question Number 13:

A: Tomorrow, we have a vocabulary quiz. I can't remember the meaning of **voice-over**. Can you help me?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) No problem. The quiz is not difficult so I am ready for it.
- b) No. Don't worry about it much. The noise did not bother me.
- c) **Yes, sure. It is the characters' inner thought expressed for audiences.**

Question Number 14:

A: Jim, many interesting article topics are around our favorite model in this sport magazine. Do you remember what these topics are called?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) It is the best-selling one printed on selling line.
- b) **Let's see. They are coverlines.**
- c) I think so. She is similar to Angelina.

Question Number 15:

A: I got this statement last week: You are in the breach of Sansiri's renting contract. Do you know what the term, **breach**, means?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) Not sure, it might air on Monday night.
- b) I suggest you can get some sea breeze before speaking again.
- c) **Oh, my goodness. Did you break some agreement with them? Right?**

Question Number 16:

A: Tomorrow I will present the problem of child trafficking in the south of Thailand but I have no idea what the specific word to describe this unlawful activity on Human Right. Can you tell me?

Narrator: What is the correct answer?

- a) Really! What can be done to improve this problem?
- b) No, I got this specific word from the succession lesson.
- c) **Let's see. I saw it quite often in the newspaper. It must be infringement.**

Part 2: Long talks

Directions: In this part of the test, you will hear longer talks. After each talk, you will hear four questions. The talks will NOT be printed in your test book and will be spoken for you only once. You are asked to read the question and four answer choices of each question and choose the best answer by putting a cross (X) on choice (a), (b), (c) or (d) in your answer sheet.

(Narrator) Now listen to the first talk and answer the question no. 17 to 20.

(Chinese speaker)

OK. Let's get down to work. As our team in charge of the magazine's July-August issue, we should discuss some strategic plans now.

In the magazine cover, several key components must be redesigned. Before the main image, the masthead should primarily appeal to both old and new social groups in various ages with a specific typeface. It serves as a logo for advertising and branding purposes.

The Main image should be designed in a classic look, containing one or more models making full eye-contact to readers. Around these models are short lines of text—Coverlines— describing key articles in the magazine to get the reader's interest. If possible, our main cover line—some highlighting topics of this issue— should be very large, taking up almost a quarter of the magazine cover.

In the 'Selling line', a statement as 'The world's No 1 magazine for young women' should be added. At the same line opposite side, 'Dateline' identifies the month and year of publication, with the standard price.

Don't forget our monthly magazine must hit on the news-stands before the cover date.

(Narrator): Now answer the question no. 17 to 20

Question no. 17: What is the speaker mainly talking about?

- a) **The redesign of the magazine cover**
- b) The number of magazines readers
- c) The survey of the readers' age
- d) The main cover lines in magazines

Question no. 18: What information does the speaker mention **last**?

- a) Main image
- b) **Dateline**
- c) Selling line
- d) Masthead

Question no. 19: Which statement best describes the 'main image'?

- a) The fixed price should be on its corner.
- b) It is like a main title of the story.
- c) The letters must be large and bold.
- d) **One or more models are necessary.**

Question no. 20: Who would be most appropriate to give this talk?

- a) A screenwriter
- b) **An editor**
- c) A reporter
- d) A reviewer

(Narrator) Now listen to the following talk to answer the question no. 21-24.

(Chinese Speaker)

I hope you've finished the assigned chapter on bills so that you've prepared for the discussion. But before we start, I'd like to mention a few things your text doesn't go into.

Bills are negotiable instruments guaranteeing the payment of a specific amount of money at a set time with the related people names on the document. Bills can be divided into three types: bills of exchange, promissory notes, and checks.

As a way to make payments without the need to carry large amounts of money, Bill of exchange, promissory notes, and checks are non-interest-bearing written orders used primarily in international trade that binds one party to pay a fixed sum of money to another party at a predetermined future date.

One thing you should know is that Bills of exchange are similar to checks. They can be drawn by individuals or banks and are generally transferable by endorsements. OK, we have thirty minutes left so we will discuss about people getting involved in each type of bills. Who is gonna be the first one?

(Narrator) Now answer the question no. 21-24.

Question no. 21: What is the speaker mainly talking about?

- a) **The extra information of bills**
- b) The feature of checks
- c) The importance of promissory notes
- d) The use of bills of exchange

Question no. 22: What information does the speaker mention **first**?

- a) Similarities of some key words
- b) **Meanings of each key word**
- c) Time limitation of discussion
- d) People involving in each key word

Question no. 23: Which of the following is NOT included in the bills based on the talk?

- a) Names of each party
- b) Office location of the registrar**
- c) Specific amount of money
- d) Fixed time of payment

Question no. 24: Who would be most appropriate to give this talk?

- a) A politician
- b) A human resources manager
- c) A financial director**
- d) An engineer

Now listen to the following talk to answer the question no. 25-28.

(Thai speaker)

This course is about film direction and a specialized knowledge of all the technical skills that are used in film making related to sound, editing, acting, and production design for your future career.

As a film maker a lot of things have to be planned and prepared otherwise he or she will make a loss on film production.

For example, the screenplay primarily helps a director outline what will be seen or heard on the screen because it show the words spoken and the actions of the actors, including some details about camera shots, the soundtrack, and the location of the scenes.

You know, sometimes the position of camera varies the range of possibilities for framing the shot and viewpoint together with changing what the audience focuses on. For example, close-up helps to involve the audience closely in a scene by focusing on particular objects or faces. Besides this, high-angle shot views people and objects from above. This can make people look small.

The last stage is editing. It aims to cut, assemble and sequence the films using a variety of shots to create the final film.

If you are interested in this course, just contact us for further information.

(narrator) Now answer the question no. 25-28.

Question no. 25: What is the main point of the talk?

- a) The advantages of making a film
- b) The equipment for scenes
- c) The course of making a film**
- d) The position of the camera

Question no. 26: What best describes about the 'screenplay'?

- a) It shows a director the total outline of a movie.**
- b) It shows a director the movie's complete version.
- c) It helps audiences easily get involved in the scene.
- d) It helps audiences understand the film production.

Question no. 27: Which information does the speaker mention **last**?

- a) Movie mis-en-scene
- b) Movie sequencing**
- c) Camera position
- d) Screenplay writing

Question no. 28: Who would be the most appropriate audience in this talk?

- a) Students majoring in Public Relations
- b) Students majoring in Radio and Broadcasting
- c) Students majoring in Cinematography**
- d) Students majoring in Advertising Management

Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 29-32.

(American speaker)

Sometimes, we as the enterprise need some protection for our innovation such as in the footwear business or electronic products.

Patent is a good answer. It is a right granted to an inventor of a product, machine materials or process to exclude others from making, using, selling, offering for sales or importing our invention. Machinery tools, instruments, methods, systems, processes, compounds, and formulation can be patented.

An invention patent, a design patent, and petty patent are key types of patent protection. An invention patent has protected new inventive stage for 20 years. The second type of patent is a design patent. This can be judged by the eye and be protected for 10 years. The last one is petty patent which have been granted for a new invention which is capable of industrial application. It provides a 6-year term of protection.

Now time for the question on the floor. Feel free to ask me, please.

Now answer the question no. 29-32.

Question no. 29: What is the main purpose of this talk?

- a) **To introduce the way to protect new products**
- b) To define key words related to invention patent
- c) To divide the categories of the petty patent
- d) To show the way to register a design patent

Question no. 30: Which of the following is mentioned **last** in this talk?

- a) The types of patents
- b) The meanings of the word, patents
- c) **The duration of a petty patent**
- d) The example of a design patent

Question no. 31: What kind of products is NOT protected by patent based on the talk?

- a) Machinery tools
- b) Footwear
- c) Systems
- d) Textbooks**

Question no. 32: Who would be the most appropriate audience in this talk?

- a) Industrial manufacturers**
- b) Rock Musicians
- c) Stock brokers
- d) Fiction authors

(Narrator) Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 33-36.

(American speaker)

First of all, I would like to talk a little bit about the newspaper layout design. I hope everyone received my handouts.

Newspapers should be well-organized and have an up to date front page that is objectively written. The Main headline should be printed in the largest bold type and located in the center of the page, stretching across the front page. Another way would be the masthead which will be another reliable way to get the readers' attention because it consists of the newspaper's name, the date, the price, and the slogan.

If they move their eyes to the upper corners of the front page, they will see the ears which include some useful information such as the weather, the edition, and an advertisement. The deck, which is the second headline of a news story that is located between the headline and the news story, will be the next part that draws the readers' attention.

Take note that if readers are interested in only one headline, they will skip the by-line, which is the name of the reporters, and look for the lead for more information.

Review chapter 9 for more details.

(Narrator) Now answer the question no. 33-36.

Question no. 33: What is the main purpose of the talk?

- a) To report the daily news around Bangkok
- b) To tell the importance of the newspaper
- c) To describe the layout of the newspaper front page**
- d) To explain the necessity of the newspaper publication

Question no. 34: Where is the weather forecast based on the talk?

- a) At the bottom corner of the page
- b) In the middle of the page
- c) Around the top corner of the page**
- d) On the opposite side of the ears

Question no. 35: Which of the followings is mentioned **last** in this talk?

- a) Deck
- b) By-line**
- c) Masthead
- d) Main headline

Question no. 36: Who would be the most appropriate audience in this talk?

- a) Students majoring in Journalism writing**
- b) Students majoring in Advertising Management
- c) Students majoring in Film Script Writing
- d) Students majoring in Radio and Broadcasting

Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 37-40.

(American speaker)

Good afternoon, everyone. Before our second break, I would like to add some tips to help your customers easily remember your products for a long time. We call it 'trademark'.

Trademark can be any words, names, symbols, designs, or a combination of these. It can be used to distinguish your goods and services apart from another competitor. There are two basic requirements for trademark protection: First is uniqueness. Secondly is distinctiveness. Some examples of well-known trademarks would include Xerox, Exxon, and Starbucks.

Next are service marks. They are marks that are used on advertising services rather than on packaging or delivery services.

Another kind of trademark can show that a product has met the acceptable standards is called the certification mark. The mark claims that the goods and services have been tested and certified for if their product has met the standards in terms of specification and special methods.

Last but not least, collective marks are used by members of a collective, association, or some other kind of organization to indicate membership and to distinguish the goods and services of members from those of non-members.

After break, we will talk more about this.

Now answer the question no. 37-40.

Question no.37: What is the main purpose of the talk?

- a) To compare trademarks and collective marks
- b) To overview the concept of trademarks**
- c) To define the word, service marks
- d) To describe the concept of collective marks

Question no.38: What information does the speaker mention **last** in the talk?

- a) Service marks
- b) Trademarks
- c) Collective marks**
- d) Certification marks

Question no.39: What best describe about ‘certification marks’?

- a) To examine the standard of goods and services**
- b) To prevent the use of logos confusing consumers
- c) To differentiate the members and non-member of goods and services
- d) To provide the original owner a license of books, journals or movies

Question no.40: Who is most likely to be the speaker of this talk?

- a) A financial manager
- b) A hotel receptionist
- c) A costume designer
- d) A brand specialist**

Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 41-44.

(Indian speaker)

Good afternoon, everyone. First of all, I would like to help you ready for the first workday tomorrow.

When writing a radio commercial, the radio format is created based on a radio station's program such as country, news, talk, or sports. The double-spaced script is for the spokesperson to easily read a written version of the commercial that provides a detailed description of its audio content. On the left-hand side are typed the source and the audio effects, in capital letter.

At last, music or sound effect will increase the emotional sense on radio advertising. That is, the audio accompanies the spoken words or other types of sound like the sound of crowd at a football match, the roar of an automobile engine, etc. in a commercial. That absolutely attracts the audiences in their particular feeling and desire.

Shall we write a 30-second radio commercial containing about 60-75 words promoting a new CD before finishing this session?

Now answer the question no. 41-44.

Question no. 41: What is the main point of talk?

- a) The main role of the radio
- b) The way to buy the network radios
- c) The way to write a radio commercial**
- d) The most appropriate channel for advertisement

Question no. 42: Which information does the speaker mention **first**?

- a) Sound effect
- b) Radio format**
- c) Spot radio time
- d) Commercial content

Question no. 43: What is the main advantage of ‘music or sound effect’ based on the talk?

- a) **It alerts the audience’s emotion and interest.**
- b) It gives the preparation time for the spokesperson.
- c) It makes the quality of radio advertisement interesting.
- d) It makes the radio station popular among particular listeners.

Question no. 44: Who would be most appropriate to give this talk?

- a) A screenwriter
- b) A broadcaster
- c) A reviewer
- d) **A scriptwriter**

(Narrator) Now listen to the last talk to answer the question no. 45-48.

(Indian speaker)

This is the fourth lecture in a series of how to protect our new creation. I am one member of the Intellectual Property group.

Let’s start with a geographical indication or GI. Why is it important to trade areas? A geographical indication is a sign on products that have a specific geographical origin. That means, the qualities, characteristics or reputation of the product should be essentially related to the place of origin. Since the qualities depend on the geographical place of production, there is a clear link between the product and its original place of production. Be careful that GI must not break the public order, morality, or public policy.

Another type is the confidential business information or a trade secret. I will show you some examples of the trade secret. They are sales methods, distribution methods, consumer profiles, manufacturing processes, and lists of suppliers or clients. These are protected indefinitely until public disclosure of the secret occurs.

I hope this information will help you to prepare for final exam. Thank you very much for your attention. Good night.

(narrator) Now answer the question no. 45-48.

Question no. 45: What is the main point of the talk?

- a) To promote local products to the public
- b) To explain two key words of goods protection**
- c) To show the advantages of geographical indication
- d) To compare between trade secret and geographical indication.

Question no. 46: What best describes about 'trade secret'?

- a) The original place of production
- b) The detail of the production process
- c) The confidential business information**
- d) The country's trade income

Question no. 47: Which of the following is mentioned **first** by the speaker?

- a) The meaning of the geographical indication**
- b) The examples of the geographical indication
- c) The meaning of trade secret
- d) The examples of trade secret

Question no. 48: Who would be the most appropriate audience in this talk?

- a) Economists
- b) Local entrepreneurs**
- c) Travel agents
- d) Interior designers

(Narrator: It is the end of the test.)

Appendix C: Listening comprehension Test (Pilot study)

(Narrator) *In the listening test, you will be asked to demonstrate how well you understand spoken English. The entire listening test will last approximately 60 minutes. There are two parts, and directions are given for each part. You must mark your answers on the separate answer sheet. You are allowed to take note in your test book.*

(Narrator) **Part 1: Question and Response**

(Narrator) **Directions:**

*You will hear each question with three responses. When you hear three choices of responses, you must choose one choice of responses that provides the correct answer for each question. Then put a cross (X) on a, b, or c on your answer sheet. Both questions and three choices of responses will not be printed in your test book and they will be **spoken** for you **only once**.*

For example, you will hear:

A: *Excuse me, Linda. Can you tell me what the SFX is about?*

You will hear the response:

a) *Perhaps it is related to shooting and positioning.*

b) *I think it deals with music and sound effect.*

c) *Yes, I agree. The AFS is a good scholarship.*

The correct answer to this question is choice (a) because SFX stands for sound effect. You have to put a cross (X) on choice (b) in your answer sheet.

	A	B	C
1		X	

Now, let's listen to each question. You have to choose one best response.

(American speaker)

Number 1:

A: You know, why is the word '**main image**' so important for a magazine?

- a) Yes of course. I can imagine its importance.
- b) Because this magazine is easy to be damaged.
- c) The teacher said this part includes eye-contact attracting the readers.

Number 2:

A: Look at that. The camera is sometimes forward and sometimes away from the actor. You see, that actor becomes bigger or smaller. Do you know what this method is called?

- a) Yes, I think it might be dolly.
- c) No, I don't agree with this method. Tilt can make a film more exciting.
- d) I don't have an idea of this kind of shortcut of making films.

Number 3:

A: John, read this statement, 'AIA Company Limited will accept all **liabilities** for direct and indirect loss.' Do you know what this word, **liability**, mean?

- a) Yes, they are very reliable.
- b) No, you have to wait until it gets published.
- c) Well, it is close to the word 'legal responsibility'.

Number 4:

A: Do you know what the legal term of a person who was born until they are nearly twenty years old?

- a) No, I don't think anyone are younger than that here.
- b) Sure, it is called 'minor'. Why do you ask?
- c) You are right! I will be twenty next month.

(Indian speaker)

Number 5:

- A: Yesterday Peter was assigned to be responsible for **props** in our play. Do you know what the **props** is about?
- a) Sure, Peter might prefer the pop music.
 - b) In this job, he thought the scenery is important.
 - c) Oh, that means he takes care of stage equipment.

Number. 6:

- A: Look at this. Andrew sent some short movie clips to me via email yesterday. He said they are necessary for news report. What is it called?
- a) Really? These people are news anchors in the program.
 - b) Oh, we call it 'footage'.
 - c) In my opinion this editorial content is so creative.

Number 7:

- A: Yesterday, Mary said her father left her a big house in his will. What does the word, **will**, mean?
- a) It is not challenging anymore for them.
 - b) I wish I could, but I bought the house yesterday.
 - c) Oh, it is a document related to the law written before he died.

Number 8:

- A: When people agree to sign the contract together for some particular purpose, they have to follow the process stated by law. What is the term for this kind of activity?
- a) I heard that. This is a kind of juristic act.
 - b) I agree she has been acting strange all afternoon.
 - c) I am supposed to do it one day.

(Chinese speaker)

Number 9:

- A: Excuse me, Simon. In class, our teacher always repeated the importance of the **lead**. Do you remember the meaning of the term '**Lead**'?
- a) That's OK. It is a kind of photograph on a page.
 - b) Yes, It is the first paragraph of a news article.
 - c) Yes, you have to read the newspaper everyday.

Number 10:

- A: Sometimes, horrible photos can draw the reader's attention at first sight. Do you know the specific word of this photo attached with the news articles?
- a) Let me check. Oh, very easy. It is called, Cut.
 - b) Yes, sometimes these photos are above rulers.
 - c) No, you cannot see any photos on the door.

Number 11:

- A: Look at this terrible accident. It is said this was caused by negligence on the part of the driver. I don't understand what the word '**negligence**' is. You know?
- a) Yes, sure. It is a kind of carelessness of doing something.
 - b) No, I found him in the parking lot yesterday.
 - c) Certainly, what did you want to talk to me about?

Number 12:

- A: Excuse me, Linda, do you know what kind of law protects the right of our creation or invention from someone who want to copy our product in illegal way?
- a) Well, I am not quite sure but I think it is the Intellectual Property.
 - b) Yes, laws are very important for our society.
 - c) I can't believe. The conference on trademarks is postponed again.

(Thai Speaker)

Number 13:

A: Tomorrow, we have a vocabulary quiz. I can't remember the meaning of **voice-over**. Can you help me?

- a) No problem. The quiz is not difficult so I am ready for it.
- b) No. Don't worry about it much. The noise did not bother me.
- c) Yes, sure. It is the characters' inner thought expressed for audiences

Number 14:

A: Jim, many interesting article topics are around our favorite model in this sport magazine. Do you remember what these topics are called?

- a) It is the best selling one printed on selling line.
- b) Let's see. They are coverlines.
- c) I think so. She is similar to Angelina.

Number 15:

A: I got this statement last week: You are in the breach of Sansiri's renting contract. Do you know what the term, **breach**, is?

- a) Not sure, it might air on Monday night.
- b) I suggest you can get some sea breeze before speaking again.
- c) Oh, my goodness. Did you break some agreement with them? Right?

Number 16:

A: Tomorrow I will present the problem of child trafficking in the south of Thailand but I have no idea what the specific word can describe this unlawful activity breaking the law on Human Right. Can you tell me?

- a) Really! What can be done to improve this problem?
- b) No, I got this specific word from the succession lesson.
- c) Let's see. I saw it quite often in the newspaper. It must be infringement.

(Narrator)

Part 2: Long talks

Directions: In this part of the test, you will hear longer talks. After each talk, you will hear four questions. The talks will NOT be printed in your test book and will be spoken for you only once. You are asked to read the question and four answer choices of each question and choose the best answer by putting a cross (X) on choice (a), (b), (c) or (d) in your answer sheet.

Now listen to the first long talk and answer the question no. 17 to 20.

(Chinese-English)

Now that we've all introduced ourselves to the new members, let's get down to work. As our team in charge of the magazine's July-August issue, we should discuss some strategic plans now.

Generally, our heaviest readers of magazines are young adults, 18 to 24 years of age. According to our survey, readers trust and believe our magazine more than other competitive ones. We try to trumpet the quality rather than the quantity of the editorial content in order to attract their specific group of readers who purchase our magazines at a newsstand every year. Next year we plan to offer a 20% discount to our subscribers.

In the magazine cover, several key components must be redesigned to appeal to both old and new social groups in various ages. Before the main image, the masthead should primarily appeal to the reader with a specific typeface very recognizable and unique. It serves as a logo for advertising and branding purposes. The Main image' should be designed in a classic look, containing one or more models making full eye-contact to readers. Around these models are short lines of text—Coverlines— describing key articles in the magazine to get the reader's interest. If possible, our main cover line'--some highlighting topics of this issue-- should be very large, taking up almost a quarter of the magazine cover.

In the 'Selling line', the short, sharp description of the title's main marketing point like such a statement as 'The world's No 1 magazine for young women' should be added. At the same line opposite side, 'Dateline'

identifies the month and year of publication, with the standard price. Don't forget our monthly magazine must hit on the news-stands before the cover date. The standard bar code must be clearly printed to facilitate our retailers.

Question no 17: What is the speaker mainly talking about?

- a) the feature of the cover of the magazines
- b) the number of reader in the magazines
- c) the survey of the readers 'age in the magazines
- d) the importance of the main cover line in magazines

Question no 18: What topic does the speaker mention last?

- a) selling line
- b) dateline
- c) masthead
- d) main image

Question no. 19: Which statement best describes the main image?

- a) The letters must be large and bold.
- b) One or more celebs are necessary.
- c) the fixed price should be on the corner
- d) It is like a main title of the story.

Question no. 20: Who would be most appropriate to give this talk?

- a) A screenwriter
- b) An editor
- c) A reporter
- d) A reviewer

(Narrator)

Now listen to the following talk to answer the question no. 21-25

(Chinese-English)

I hope you've finished the assigned chapter on bills so that you've prepared for the discussion. But before we start, I'd like to mention a few things your text doesn't go into.

Bills are negotiable instrument guaranteeing the payment of a specific amount of money at a set time, with the related people names on the document. Bills can be divided into three types: bills of exchange, promissory notes, and cheques.

Bill of exchange is a non-interest-bearing written order used primarily in international trade that binds one party to pay a fixed sum of money to another party at a predetermined future date. A promissory note is a legal instrument in which one party promises in writing to pay a fixed sum of money to the other in the future date. Cheques are a type of bill of exchange and were developed as a way to make payments without the need to carry large amounts of money. They are order instruments instructing financial institution to pay a specific amount of a specific currency from a specified transaction account held in the drawer's name with that institution.

One thing you should know is that Bills of exchange are similar to cheques and promissory notes. They can be drawn by individuals or banks and are generally transferable by endorsements. The promissory note differs from a bill of exchange in terms of the transferable method that bind one party to pay a third party that was not involved in its creation.

OK, we have thirty minutes left so we will discuss about people getting involved in each type of bills. Who is gonna be the first one?

Question no. 21: What is the speaker mainly talking about?

- a) Bills of exchange
- b) Bills, debt contracts
- c) Promissory notes
- d) Cheques, a negotiable instrument

Question no. 22: What topic does the speaker mention first?

- a) the similarity and difference among negotiable instruments
- b) the definition of key terms
- c) the time limitation of discussion
- d) the pros and cons of each key term

Question no 23: Which of the following is NOT the main feature of a negotiable instrument based on the talk?

- a) a fixed time of payment
- b) the specific amount of money
- c) the agreement of each party
- d) the location of the registrars 'office

*Question no. 24: When does the discussion session take place based on the talk?

- a) at the beginning of the talk.
- b) at the mid of the talk
- c) at the end of the talk
- d) at the end of the talk next week.

Question no. 25: Who would be most appropriate to give this talk?

- a) the lecturer from the faculty of Communication Arts
- b) the dean of the faculty of Fine Arts
- c) the lecturer of the faculty of Laws
- d) the dean of the faculty of Politics

(Narrator)

Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 26-29.

(Thai speaker)

Our course is designed for the fourth year students who not only want to learn more about film direction but also want to acquire a specialized knowledge of all the technical skills that are used in film making related to cinematography, sound, editing, acting, production design for your future career.

You know that as a film maker a lot of things have to be planned and prepared otherwise he or she will make a loss on film production. The screenplay primarily helps a director outline what will be seen or heard on the screen. Like a playscript, the screenplay will show the words spoken and the actions of the actors, including some details about camera shots, the soundtrack, and the location of the scenes. The scenes are also influential for the quality of making a film. That is, the film maker have to plan about mise-en-scene, a French word for what is put into a scene such as casting, make-up, costumes, and the way characters are positioned in scenes, props, sets, and location.

You know. Sometimes the position of camera varies the range of possibilities for framing the shot and viewpoint together with changing what the audience focuses on. The examples related to cinematography are long shot which helps to establish where a scene is happening while close-up helps to involve the audience closely in a scene by focusing on particular objects or faces. Besides this, high-angle shot views people and objects from above. This can make people look small and vulnerable. Another one is the point of view shot shows us what a character is seeing and helps audiences to create tension. The last stage is editing by cutting the films and assembling it using a

variety of shots to create the final film sequences with adding music, speaking voices, and sound effect.

Question no. 26: What is the main point of the talk?

- a) the process of making a film
- b) the advantages of making a film
- c) the position of the character
- d) the equipment for scenes

Question no. 27: What best describes about the screenplay?

- a) It is in the pre-production stage of filmmaking
- b) It is in the production stage of making a film.
- c) It is in the post-production stage before editing the film.
- d) It is the complete version of the film ready to show.

Question no. 28: Which topic does the speaker mention first?

- a) cinematography
- b) screenplay writing
- c) the feelings of the characters
- d) the scenes of the film

Question no. 29: Who would be the most appropriate audience in this talk?

- a) Students majoring in Public Relations
- b) Students majoring in Radio and Broadcasting
- c) Students majoring in Cinematography
- d) Students majoring in Advertising Management

(Narrator)

Now listen to the third talk to answer the question no. 30-34

(Thai-English)

Sometimes, we as the enterprise need some protection for our innovation such as in the footwear business or electronic products. Patent is a good answer. The department of Intellectual Property takes charge of it.

It is a right granted to an inventor of a product, machine, material or process to exclude others from making, using, selling, offering for sales or importing our invention. A patent provides a new way of doing something new use for a known product, or offers a technical solution to an existing problem. Machinery, tools, instruments, methods, systems, processes, compounds, and formulation can be patented.

There are three types of patent protection: an invention patent, a design patent, and petty patent.

An invention patent provides a 20-year term of protection from the filing date under the following conditions: the invention is new and involves an inventive stage together with being widely known and used by others in the country before the date of the application for a patent.

The second type of patent is a design patent which provides a 10-year term of protection from the filing date. It could be defined as the features pertaining to the shape, pattern, or ornamental aspects which are applied to one product by an industrial process. This can be judged by the eye.

The last one is petty patent which provides a 6-year term of protection, plus two allowable extensions of 2 years each. A petty patent may be granted for a new invention which is capable of industrial application.

Now time for the question on the floor. Feel free to ask me, please.

Question no. 30: What is the main purpose of this talk?

- a) to explain general knowledge of patent
- b) to define the terms related to invention patent
- c) to divide the categories of the petty patent
- d) to show the way to register a design patent

Question no. 31: Which of the following is mentioned first in this talk?

- a) the classification of the patent
- b) the definition of patent
- c) the duration of new invention protection
- d) the example of goods and services

*Question no. 32: What is not included in the classification of registering patent?

- a) an invention patent
- b) a design patent
- c) a petty patent
- d) Patent Acts

Question no. 33: What kind of products is NOT protected by patent based on the talk?

- a) Automobiles
- b) Televisions
- c) textbooks
- d) tennis rackets

Question no. 34: Who would concern about this talk most?

- a) the manufacturer
- b) the music company
- c) the stock brokers
- d) the politicians

(Narrator) Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 35-38.

(American Speaker)

First, I want to let you know the first excursion to Bangkok Post will be next week, followed by the final exam. I would like to tell you a little bit about the newspaper layout design. I hope everybody got my handouts.

Newspapers have a very board audience because they have a variety of information issued daily or weekly, including local and international news stories, advertisements, opinions, sports news, and so on. One important element in the newspaper is the well-organized and up to date front page written objectively. The Main headline printed in the largest bold type located in the middle of the page stretch across the front page attracts their readers in particular purposes altered day by day under either economic issues or antisocial events.

Besides this, the masthead will be another one the readers are reliable because it consists of the name of the newspaper, the name of publisher, the place where it is published, the day of the week and the date, the volume number, the number of pages or sections, the price, and the slogan. Then if they move their eyes to the upper corners of the front page, they will see the ears which include some useful information such as the weather, the edition, and an advertisement. However, some newspapers have more than one ear whereas some have none at all.

The deck, the second headline of a news story located between the headline and the news story, will be the next part to be paid attention. As noticed, the readers rarely look at a by-line giving the name of the reporter who wrote the story. If readers are interested in one headline, they will further skip through the lead for more information located at the first paragraph of a news article.

If you have any questions, let's review our chapter 9.

Question no. 35: What is the main purpose of the talk?

- a) To describe the necessity of the publication date in the newspaper
- b) To tell the importance of the newspaper to the public
- c) To inform the well-organized publication of newspaper
- d) To explain the main components of the newspaper front page

Question no. 36: Where can the reader see some information of weather forecast based on the talk?

- a) around the top corner of the page
- b) in the middle of the page
- c) at the bottom corner of the page
- d) on the opposite side of the ears

Question no. 37: Which topic is mentioned first?

- a) the masthead
- b) the main headline
- c) the deck
- d) by-line



Question no. 38: Who would be the most appropriate audience in this talk?

- a) Students majoring in Journalism writing
- b) Students majoring in Advertising Management
- c) Students majoring in Film Script Writing
- d) Students majoring in Radio and Broadcasting

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(Narrator)

Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 39-43.

(American Speaker)

Good afternoon, everyone. Before our second break, I would like to add a kind of tips to help your customers easily memorize your products for a long time. We called it 'trademark'.

Trademark can be any words, names, symbols, or designs, or any combination. It can be used to distinguish your goods and services from those of another. There are two basic requirements for trademark protection: uniqueness --not be the same as the registered marks of another person, and distinctiveness-- ability to distinguish the goods using the trademark from other

goods. The common examples of well-known trademarks would include Xerox, Exxon, and Starbucks.

Besides this, another type of trademark is service marks. These are different from a trademark because the kind of marks is used on the advertising of the service rather than on the packaging or delivery of the service. Generally there is no 'package' to place the mark on so we can see service marks on its vehicles, such as on planes, buses, or even delivery trucks or moving vans.

Not only this, there is one kind of trademarks that show the existence of an accepted product standard. This is called the certification mark. The mark can claim that the goods and services have been tested and certified whether their product is on the standard in terms of specification and special methods.

Last but not least, collective marks is another type of trademark used by members of a collective, association, or other organization to indicate membership and to distinguish the goods and services of members from those of non-members. Use of the membership cards, wall plaques, personal rings or other jewelry that is available to all members is required to support registration of a collective membership mark.

After break, we will talk more about them again.

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Question no. 39: What is the speaker mainly talking about?

- a) the overview of trademarks
- b) the definition of service marks
- c) the description of collective marks
- d) the difference of trademarks and collective marks

Question no. 40: What does the speaker mention last in the talk?

- a) the meaning of certification marks
- b) the examples of certification marks
- c) the feature of collective marks
- d) the product example of collective marks

*Question no. 41: Which of the following is considered the basic requirement of marks for business?

- a) uniqueness and distinctiveness
- b) credibility and identity
- c) non-prejudice and vitality
- d) convenience and legitimacy

Question no. 42: What is the main function of certification marks?

- a) to examine whether the goods and or service meet certain standards
- b) to differentiate the goods and services of members from those of non-members
- c) to prevent competing businesses from using logos or sign that could confuse consumers
- d) to provide the original owner a license of books, journals or movies

Question no. 43: Who would possibly be the speaker of this talk?

- a) one member of the Intellectual Property department
- b) one company member of the purchasing department
- c) one exporter of the logistic department
- d) the reporter of the stock exchange

Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 44-47.

(Indian Speaker)

Good afternoon, everyone. First of all I would like to welcome all of you to our company. In this session I would like to summarize you a little bit about some of our basic tasks. This will help you ready for the first workday tomorrow. I am sure we will work together as a good team.

Before we start writing a radio commercial, we as advertisers may buy network radio, spot radio, or local radio airtime. Networks may be national and regional in size. Spot radio enables national and regional advertisers more flexible in their selection of markets or stations and even airtime. Peak radio usage coincides with when people are driving to work, lunch time and leaving work.

When writing a radio commercial, there are terms an advertiser needs to know. Do not forget about who is an Announcer or what is the Names of characters?. The radio format created based on the style that characterizes a radio station's program such as country, classical, news, talk, or sports should be taken into account. Script is also important. It is about a written version of the commercial that provides a detailed description of its audio content. A radio script should be double-spaced so that the spokesperson can read the copy without difficulty. On the left-hand side of the sheet of paper are typed the source and the audio effects, in capital letter. At last, Music or Sound Effect will increase the emotional sense on radio advertising. That is, the audio that accompanies the spoken words or other types of sound like the sound of crowd at a football match, the roar of an automobile engine, etc. in a commercial absolutely attracts the audiences in their particular feeling and desire.

Shall we write a 30-second radio commercial containing about 60-75 words promoting a new CD by the artist of your choice before finishing this session?

Question no. 44: What is the main topic of talk?

- a) the main role of the radio
- b) the way to buy the network radios
- c) the elements of writing radio commercials
- d) the most appropriate channel for advertisement

Question no. 45: Which topic does the speaker first talk?

- a) adding the sound effect
- b) outlining the radio script
- c) looking for the spot radio time
- d) contacting with international radio network

Question no. 46: What is the main advantage of music or sound effect based on the talk?

- a) It alerts the audience's emotion and interest.
- b) It gives the preparation time for the spokesperson.
- c) It makes the quality of radio advertisement interesting.
- d) It makes the radio station popular among particular listeners.

Question no. 47: Who would be most appropriate to give this talk?

- a) A screenwriter
- b) A broadcaster
- c) A reviewer
- d) A scriptwriter

(Narrator)

Now listen to the following talk and answer the question no. 48-52.

(Indian-English)

This is the fourth lecture in a series of How to protect our new creation. I am John, one member of this legal practitioner group. Tonight I will be speaking the way to protect our products and services.

Let's first start with a geographical indication or GI. Why is it important to trade areas? A geographical indication is a sign on products that have a specific geographical origin and have qualities or a reputation that are due to that origin. So, a sign must show the name of the place of origin of the goods. That means, the qualities, characteristics or reputation of the product should be essentially related to the place of origin. Since the qualities depend on the geographical place of production, there is a clear link between the product and its original place of production.

I will give you some examples of the products under GI. Those are agricultural products, foodstuffs, wine, and spirit drinks, handicrafts, and industrial products. Be careful that the name must not already be in widespread use as the generic name for a similar product. Another important thing is GI must not break the public order, morality, or public policy.

Another type of IP for tonight is the confidential business information or a trade secret. I will show you some examples of it. They are sales methods, distribution methods, consumer profiles, advertising strategies, lists of suppliers and client, and also manufacturing processes. These are protected indefinitely until public disclosure of the secret occurs.

I hope this information will help you to prepare for final exam. Thank you very much for your attention. Good night.

Question no. 48: What is the main point of the talk?

- a) to explain the overview of some types of IP
- b) to show the advantage and disadvantage of IP
- c) to classify the main types of trade secret
- d) to compare between trade secret and geographical indication.

Question no. 49: What best describes about trade secret?

- a) the confidential business information of each individual company
- b) the sign on products that stated the original place of production
- c) the detail of the production process remains secret
- d) the situation in which the value of a country's trade income is kept secret

Question no. 50: Which of the following is mentioned last by the speaker?

- a) the example of the geographical indication
- b) the significance of the geographical indication
- c) the definition of trade secret
- d) the duration of trade secret

*Question no. 51: What is the good example of geographical indication?

- a) OTOP foodstuff
- b) sales methods
- c) manufacturing process
- d) A recipe of Thai food

Question no. 52: Who would be the expected audience who are interested in this talk most?

- a) the teachers from the university
- b) the regional business owners
- c) the chef from well-known hotels
- d) the staff from travel agency

Appendix D: Samples of English Accented Speeches

The following are the samples of English accented speeches, uttered by four speakers from the World Englishes paradigm in forms of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) transcription. This aimed to examine the different utterance features of each English accented speech selected for the main study. Four English-accented speakers were asked to naturally read a one-paragraph script aloud in the lecturing speed and audio-recorded in the quiet room. The script was started with, “OK everyone, last time we talked about the pros and cons of the magazines. In this session we will look closely on how magazines attract readers....”.

Table 1

The IPA transcription of the different utterance features of each English accented speech

Uttered Words	American English	Indian English	Chinese English	Thai English
OK	/oʊ k ^h ei/	/ö ke/	/ö k ^h e/	/ ö k ^h ei/
everyone	/evriwʌŋ/	/ewriwan/	/ewriwan/	/evriwan/
last	/læst/	/læst/	/læst/	/læst/
time	/taim/	/taim/	/t ^h aim/	/t ^h am/
we	/wi/	/wɪ/	/wi/	/wɪ/
talked	/t ^h ɔkt ^h /	/t ^h ɔ:k/	/t ^h ɔkt ^h /	/t ^h ɔk/
about	/əbaʊt/	/ăbaʊt/	/ăbak/	/ăbaʊt/
The	/ ðə/	/ də/	/ eə/	/ də/
pros	/p ^h roʊz/	/p ^h rouz/	/p ^h rɔs/	/p ^h ro/
and	/ænd/	/æɪn/	/æɪn/	/æɪn/
cons	/k ^h anz/	/k ^h ans/	/k ^h arns/	/k ^h ans/
of	/əv/	/ɔf/	/ab/	/of/
the	/ ðə/	/ də/	/ eə/	/ də/
magazines	/mægəzinz/	/mægăzinz/	/mægðzɪs/	/mægăzins/
This	/ðɪs/	/dɪs/	/dɪs/	/dɪs/

session	/seʃn/	/seʃn/	/seʃn/	/setfn/
we	/wi/	/wɪ/	/wi/	/wɪ/
will	/wɪl/	/wɪl/	/wɪl/	/wɪl/
look	/lʊkʰ/	/lʊk/	/lʊk/	/lʊk/
closely	/kloʊzli/	/kloʊsli/	/kloʊsli/	/kloʊsli/
how	/haʊ/	/haʊ/	/haʊ/	/haʊ/
magazines	/mægəzɪnz/	/mægəzɪnz/	/mægðzɪnz/	/mægəzɪnz/
attract	/ətʰrækt/	/ətʰræk/	/ətʰækt/	/ətʰræk/
readers	/ridərs/	/ridərs/	/ridərs/	/lidərs/

Table 1 showed the different utterance features of each English accented speech, transcribed in forms of IPA. Diacritics may be placed a symbol like ‘kʰ’ an aspirated sound and ‘ɺ’ a nasalized sound. The suprasegmentals like ‘ě’, was represented an extra-short sound, and ‘e:’ as a long sound. As noticed, the word initial position of ‘the’ was pronounced with /d/ by three non-inner circle English speakers instead of /ð/ as American English speakers. The final ending sound /s/ and /z/ of the word, *magazines*, were confusingly pronounced by three non-inner circle English speakers. The vowel /ə/ of the word, *and*, was pronounced as /æ/ by three non-inner circle English speakers. The /t/ final sound of the word ‘talked’ was sometimes absent in the utterance of non-inner circle English speakers. The sound /r/, one problematic pronunciation for Thai-English speakers, was pronounced like /l/, unequally as the English retroflex /r/.

Appendix E: Validation Form of the listening comprehension test

(Index of Item-Objective Congruence)

A. Content validation

Directions: Please give your assessment about the listening comprehension test by rating either one of three scores:

-1 = disagree

0= uncertain

1 = agree

Details	Rating			Comment
	-1	0	1	
1. The objectives of the course are represented in the test specification of the listening test.				
2. The directions of the test are clear.				
3. The vocabularies used in the test are specific for particular academic fields.				
4. The topics of the listening inputs are specific for particular academic fields.				
5. The content of the listening inputs are specific for particular academic fields.				
6. The listening texts are in the difficult level.				
7. The total of time allotment provided is appropriate.				
8. The total number of items is appropriate.				
9. The number of listening texts is appropriate.				
10. The length of each listening text is appropriate.				

11. The format of the test, multiple choice, is appropriate.				
12. The number of the answer options in each test item is appropriate.				
13. The task types of the test are familiar to students. (e.g. questions and responses and long talks)				
14. This listening comprehension test is appropriate for assessing the third-year students' listening ability in the CA 207 course.				

Comments:

B. Construct validation

Directions: Please give your assessment whether each test item follows the construct of the listening comprehension test and the objective of the course by rating either one of three scores: **-1 = disagree, 0= uncertain, 1 = agree**

Part 1: Questions and Responses

Item no.	Listening construct	Rating			Comment
		-1	0	1	
1	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, related to the lesson.				
2	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, related to the lesson.				
3	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, unrelated to the lesson.				
4	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, unrelated to the lesson.				
5	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, related to the lesson.				
6	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and				

	discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, related to the lesson.				
7	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, unrelated to the lesson.				
8	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, unrelated to the lesson.				
9	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, related to the lesson.				
10	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, related to the lesson.				
11	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, unrelated to the lesson.				
12	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, unrelated to the lesson.				
13	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, related to the lesson.				

14	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, related to the lesson.				
15	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, unrelated to the lesson.				
16	To determine an appropriate response with understanding the technical terms and discriminating the distinctive sounds to the question, unrelated to the lesson.				

Part 2: Long Talks

Item no.	Listening construct	Rating			Comment
		-1	0	1	
Text no. 1					
17	To identify the main idea of the talk				
18	To make a sequence of the event from hints such as before, then, so on.				
19	To understand specific information of the talk				
20	To recognize inferences from the verbal input				
Text no. 2					
21	To identify the main idea of the talk				
22	To make a sequence of the event from hints such as before, then, so on.				
23	To understand specific information of the talk				
24	To understand specific information of the talk				
25	To recognize inferences from the verbal input				

Text no. 3				
26	To identify the main idea of the talk			
27	To understand specific information of the talk			
28	To make a sequence of the event from hints such as before, then, so on.			
29	To recognize inferences from the verbal input			
Text no. 4				
30	To identify the main idea of the talk			
31	To make a sequence of the event from hints such as before, then, so on.			
32	To understand specific information of the talk			
33	To understand specific information of the talk			
34	To identify the main idea of the talk			
Text no. 5				
35	To understand specific information of the talk			
36	To understand specific information of the talk			
37	To make a sequence of the event from hints such as before, then, so on.			
38	To recognize inferences from the verbal input			
Text no. 6				
39	To identify the main idea of the talk			
40	To make a sequence of the event from hints such as before, then, so on.			
41	To understand specific information of the talk			
42	To understand specific information of the talk			
43	To recognize inferences from the verbal input			
Text no. 7				
44	To identify the main idea of the talk			
45	To make a sequence of the event from hints such as before, then, so on.			

46	To understand specific information of the talk				
47	To recognize inferences from the verbal input				
Text no. 8					
48	To identify the main idea of the talk				
49	To understand specific information of the talk				
50	To make a sequence of the event from hints such as before, then, so on.				
51	To understand specific information of the talk				
52	To recognize inferences from the verbal input				

Other comments



Appendix F: Item Analysis of the listening comprehension test

Item no. (main study)	Item no. (pilot study)	Difficulty Index (P)	Point Biserial correlation (Rpbi)
1	1	0.582	0.241
2	2	0.545	0.375
3	3	0.536	0.208
4	4	0.591	0.437
5	5	0.509	0.258
6	6	0.473	0.225
7	7	0.486	0.276
8	8	0.455	0.298
9	9	0.536	0.315
10	10	0.491	0.298
11	11	0.491	0.228
12	12	0.455	0.221
13	13	0.464	0.200
14	14	0.472	0.291
15	15	0.436	0.407
16	16	0.436	0.240
17	17	0.418	0.430
18	18	0.473	0.209
19	19	0.527	0.208
20	20	0.436	0.459
21	21	0.436	0.225
22	22	0.509	0.348
23	23	0.527	0.208
	**24	0.202	-0.012
24	25	0.509	0.268

25	26	0.473	0.224
26	27	0.545	0.299
27	28	0.582	0.232
28	29	0.436	0.388
29	30	0.536	0.252
30	31	0.527	0.348
	**32	0.890	0.185
31	33	0.555	0.401
32	34	0.600	0.446
33	35	0.582	0.319
34	36	0.564	0.228
35	37	0.400	0.390
36	38	0.600	0.566
37	39	0.473	0.222
	40	0.436	0.306
38	**41	0.205	-0.001
39	42	0.436	0.330
40	43	0.673	0.141
41	44	0.555	0.241
42	45	0.536	0.343
43	46	0.491	0.242
44	47	0.559	0.212
45	48	0.498	0.260
46	49	0.488	0.205
47	50	0.582	.0343
	**51	0.827	-0.024
48	52	0.555	0.202

Noted:

*The difficulty index value is not between 0.20-0.85.

**The discrimination index value is (nearly) zero or negative.

Appendix G: Questionnaire on test-taking strategies

แบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับกลวิธีในการทำข้อสอบการฟัง

คำสั่ง: กรุณาอ่านข้อความข้างล่าง และใส่เครื่องหมาย (✓) ในช่องด้านขวามือ 1, 2, 3, 4 หรือ 5 ที่ตรงกับกลวิธีที่นักศึกษาใช้ในการฟังและในการทำข้อสอบมากที่สุด โดยที่
หมายเลข 1 = ไม่เห็นด้วยเป็นอย่างยิ่ง, 2 = ไม่เห็นด้วย, 3 = ปานกลาง, 4 = เห็นด้วย, 5 = เห็นด้วยเป็นอย่างยิ่ง

ตอนที่ ๑ กลวิธีการฟังเพื่อความเข้าใจเนื้อหา	1	2	3	4	5
1. ก่อนเริ่มการสอบการฟัง ฉันพยายามทำให้สบาย หายใจเข้าออก และ ทำสมาธิ					
2. ก่อนเริ่มการสอบการฟัง ฉันเปิดอ่านคำถามและคำตอบคร่าวๆ ทั้งหมดก่อน					
3. ก่อนเริ่มฟังเนื้อหาแต่ละเรื่องในข้อสอบการฟัง ฉันจะอ่านและพิจารณาคำถามแต่ละข้อของเนื้อหานั้นๆ ก่อน					
4. ฉันตั้งใจฟังเนื้อหาทั้งหมดในข้อสอบถึงแม้ว่าการฟังนี้จะยากสำหรับฉัน					
5. ฉันตั้งใจฟังคำศัพท์ทุกคำในเนื้อหาที่ได้ยิน					
6. ฉันตั้งใจฟังและจับใจความหลักเพื่อให้เข้าใจในเนื้อหา					
7. ฉันตั้งใจฟังคำศัพท์หลักๆ เพื่อให้เข้าใจในเนื้อหา					
8. ฉันพยายามตีความข้อมูลที่ได้ยิน เพื่อให้เข้าใจในเนื้อหา					
9. ฉันพยายามใช้คำศัพท์ที่รู้ความหมาย เพื่อเดาความหมายของศัพท์ที่ไม่รู้จัก					
10. ฉันนำความรู้ในบทเรียนมาประกอบกันเพื่อช่วยให้เข้าใจเนื้อหาที่ได้ยิน					
11. ฉันนำประสบการณ์และความรู้เดิมมาประกอบเพื่อช่วยให้เข้าใจเนื้อหาที่ได้ยิน					

12. ฉันใช้ความคุ้นเคยกับสำเนียงภาษาของผู้พูดเพื่อช่วยให้เข้าใจเนื้อหาที่ได้ยิน					
13. ฉันพยายามแปลเนื้อหาที่ได้ยินโดยรวมเป็นภาษาไทยเพื่อให้เข้าใจในเนื้อหาที่ได้ยิน					
14. ฉันพยายามแปลคำศัพท์ทุกคำที่ได้ยินเป็นภาษาไทยเพื่อให้เข้าใจในเนื้อหาที่ได้ยิน					
15. ฉันจดบันทึกคำศัพท์หลัก ๆ หรือใจความหลักที่ได้ยินลงในตัวข้อสอบ					
16. ฉันพยายามสรุปความจากเนื้อหาที่ฟัง					
17. ฉันพยายามรวบรวมคำที่ได้ยินมาประกอบกันให้ได้ใจความ					
18. ในระหว่างที่ฟังเนื้อหา ฉันพยายามประเมินความสามารถในการเข้าใจจากเนื้อหาที่ฟัง เพื่อหากวิธีช่วยในความเข้าใจครั้งนี้					
19. หลังสิ้นสุดการฟัง ฉันรู้สึกพอใจกับระดับความสามารถในการฟังเพื่อความเข้าใจของฉันในครั้งนี้					
ตอนที่ ๒ กลวิธีในการเลือกคำตอบ	1	2	3	4	5
20. ฉันเลือกคำตอบที่ดีที่สุดจากการฟังและจับใจความสำคัญของเนื้อเรื่อง					
21. ฉันเลือกคำตอบที่ดีที่สุดจากการฟังคำโยงความหรือคำเชื่อมประโยคเพื่อเรียงลำดับเหตุการณ์ของเนื้อเรื่อง					
22. ฉันเลือกคำตอบที่ดีที่สุดโดยการทบทวนความจำจากการฟังเนื้อหา					
23. ฉันเลือกคำตอบที่ดีที่สุดจากการจดบันทึกสิ่งที่ได้ฟังจากเนื้อหา					
24. ฉันเลือกคำตอบที่ดีที่สุดจากการสรุปเรื่องราวโดยรวมเพื่อตอบคำถาม					
25. ฉันเลือกคำตอบที่ดีที่สุดจากการทบทวนโครงสร้างทางไวยากรณ์ที่สอดคล้องกันระหว่างคำถามและตัวเลือกคำตอบ					

26. ฉันเลือกคำตอบที่ดีที่สุดจากการทบทวนความหมายที่สัมพันธ์กันระหว่างคำถามและตัวเลือกคำตอบ					
27. ฉันใช้วิธีตัดตัวเลือกที่ฉันไม่ได้ยินในเนื้อหาที่ฟังทิ้งไปก่อน					
28. ฉันใช้วิธีตัดตัวเลือกที่แปลไม่ได้ทิ้งไปก่อน					
29. ฉันใช้ความรู้เดิมและประสบการณ์ในการเลือกคำตอบที่ดีที่สุด					
30. ฉันใช้ความรู้ในบทเรียนในการเลือกคำตอบที่ดีที่สุด					
31. ฉันเลือกคำตอบที่ดีที่สุดเพราะมีคำศัพท์หรือวลีบางตัวจากเนื้อหาที่ได้ฟัง					
32. ฉันใช้ข้อมูลจากข้อคำถามหรือตัวเลือกข้ออื่นๆ มาพิจารณาในการตอบคำถาม					
33. ฉันเลือกคำตอบที่ดีที่สุด ถึงแม้ฉันจะไม่เข้าใจความหมายของมัน					

Appendix H: Validation form of questionnaire on using test-taking strategies

Instructions: Please give your comment by putting (✓) in the box.

a) **Content validation**

Questions	Yes	Not sure	No	Comment
1. Does the questionnaire reflect its objective?				
2. Are the directions of the questionnaire clear?				
3. Is the format (Likert scale) of the questionnaire appropriate?				
4. Is a set of the rating scale clearly defined?				
5. Are the statements in the questionnaire comprehensible?				
6. Is the font size of the text appropriate?				
7. Is the number of the questionnaire item appropriate?				

b) Construct validation

Questions	Yes	Not sure	No	Comment
8. Does item no. 1 reflect the domain of 'lowering the anxiety' under the affective strategy?				
9. Do item no. 2 reflect the domain of 'pre-listening planning' under the metacognitive strategies?				
10. Do item no. 3 reflect the domain of 'pre-listening planning' under the metacognitive strategies?				
11. Do item no. 4 reflect the domain of 'directed attention' under the metacognitive strategies?				
12. Do item no. 5 reflect the domain of 'directed attention' under the metacognitive strategies?				
13. Do item no. 6 reflect the domain of 'selective attention' under the metacognitive strategies?				
14. Do item no. 7 reflect the domain of 'selective attention' under the metacognitive strategies?				
15. Do item no. 8 reflect the domain of 'inferencing' under the cognitive strategies?				
16. Do item no. 9 reflect the domain of 'inferencing' under the cognitive strategies?				

17. Do item no. 10 reflect the domain of 'elaboration' under the cognitive strategies?				
18. Do item no. 11 reflect the domain of 'elaboration' under the cognitive strategies?				
19. Do item no. 12 reflect the domain of 'elaboration' under the cognitive strategies?				
20. Do item no. 13 reflect the domain of 'translation' under the cognitive strategies?				
21. Do item no. 14 reflect the domain of 'translation' under the cognitive strategies?				
22. Do item no. 15 reflect the domain of 'note-taking' under the cognitive strategies?				
23. Do item no. 16 reflect the domain of 'summarization' under the cognitive strategies?				
24. Do item no. 17 reflect the domain of 'reconstruction' under the cognitive strategies?				
25. Do item no. 18 reflect the domain of 'while-listening monitoring' under the metacognitive strategies?				
26. Do item no. 19 reflect the domain of 'post-listening evaluation' under the metacognitive strategies?				
27. Do item no. 20 reflect the domain of the test-management strategies?				

28. Do item no. 21 reflect the domain of the test-management strategies?				
29. Do item no. 22 reflect the domain of the test-management strategies?				
30. Do item no. 23 reflect the domain of the test-management strategies?				
31. Do item no. 24 reflect the domain of the test-management strategies?				
32. Do item no. 25 reflect the domain of the test-management strategies?				
33. Do item no. 26 reflect the domain of the test-management strategies?				
34. Do item no. 27 reflect the domain of the test-management strategies?				
35. Do item no. 28 reflect the domain of the test-management strategies?				
36. Do item no. 29 reflect the domain of the test-management strategies?				
37. Do item no. 30 reflect the domain of the test-management strategies?				
38. Do item no. 31 reflect the domain of the test-wiseness strategies?				
39. Do item no. 32 reflect the domain of the test-wiseness strategies?				
40. Do item no. 33 reflect the domain of the test-wiseness strategies?				

Other comments:

Validation form of retrospective interview on using test-taking strategies in the listening comprehension test

Instructions: Please give your comment by putting (✓) in the box.

Questions	Yes	Not sure	No	Comment
1. Do the questions of the interview reflect its objective?				
2. Is the time allotment appropriate?				
3. Is the language used comprehensible?				
4. Is the sequence of the questions appropriate?				
5. Does the question no. 1 reflect the domain of 'listening strategies'?				
6. Does the question no. 2 reflect the use of both 'test-management strategies' and 'test-wiseness strategies'?				

Other comments:

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Appendix I: Samples of Additional Questions for retrospective interview

In the retrospective semi-structured interview, two main questions in Table 11 were fundamentally asked for particular domains: (1) understanding spoken text, and (2) selecting the best answer in accordance with the framework of Cohen (2012)'s test-taking strategies. When the interviewees were in long pause or missed some key points of the interview during their report on the use of test-taking strategies, the following additional questions were asked to gain more information:

Part 1: Understanding spoken texts

- a) What strategies do you use to understand the spoken text?
- b) What is the first step that helps you to understand the spoken text?
- c) What is the next step that helps you understand the spoken text?
- d) Do you find some difficulties to understand the spoken text? What are they?
How did you tackle these problems?

Part 2: Selecting the best answer

- a) What strategies do you use to select the best answer in the test?
- b) What strategies help you answer this kind of the question item?
- c) What is the first step that helps select the best answer of this question item?
- d) What is the next step that helps you to select the best answer?
- e) Do you find some difficulties to select the best answer? What are they? How did you tackle these problems?

Appendix J: Attitudinal questionnaire on English accented speeches

แบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับเจตคติต่อสำเนียงภาษาอังกฤษในข้อสอบการฟัง

คำสั่ง: หลังจากนักศึกษาได้ยืมสำเนียงภาษาอังกฤษจากผู้พูดแต่ละท่านในข้อสอบการฟังแล้ว กรุณาอ่านข้อความข้างล่าง และ ใส่เครื่องหมาย (✓) เพียงหนึ่งช่องที่ตรงกับระดับความคิดเห็นหรือความพึงพอใจของคุณมากที่สุด โดยที่

1= ไม่เห็นด้วยเป็นอย่างยิ่ง, 2= ไม่เห็นด้วย, 3 = ปานกลาง, 4 = เห็นด้วย, 5 = เห็นด้วยเป็นอย่างยิ่ง

ผู้พูดคนที่ 1 2 3 4

ฉันคิดว่า...	1	2	3	4	5
1. ผู้พูดคนนี้เป็นคนฉลาด					
2. ผู้พูดคนนี้เป็นมีการศึกษาดี					
3. ผู้พูดคนนี้เป็นคนภูมิฐาน					
4. ผู้พูดคนนี้เป็นคนน่าเชื่อถือ					
5. ผู้พูดคนนี้เป็นมิตร					
6. ผู้พูดคนนี้เป็นคนจริงใจ					
7. ภาษาอังกฤษของผู้พูดฟังเข้าใจง่าย					
8. ภาษาอังกฤษของผู้พูดดูคล่องแคล่ว					
9. ภาษาอังกฤษของผู้พูดชัดเจน					
10. ภาษาอังกฤษของผู้พูดอยู่ในจังหวะน้ำเสียงที่เหมาะสม					
11. ฉันรู้สึกเพลิดเพลินเมื่อได้ฟังภาษาอังกฤษของผู้พูด					
12. ฉันต้องการพูดภาษาอังกฤษให้เหมือนกับผู้พูดคนนี้					
13. ผู้พูดคนนี้พูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่					
14. ฉันรู้สึกกังวลใจเมื่อได้ยินภาษาอังกฤษของผู้พูดในข้อสอบ					
15. ฉันรู้สึกคุ้นเคยกับภาษาอังกฤษของผู้พูดคนนี้					
16. ภาษาอังกฤษของผู้พูดช่วยให้ฉันทำข้อสอบการฟังได้ดีขึ้น					
17. ฉันต้องการให้ภาษาอังกฤษของผู้พูดรวมอยู่ในข้อสอบฟัง					
18. ภาษาอังกฤษของผู้พูดเป็นที่ยอมรับได้ในข้อสอบการฟัง					
19. ฉันคิดว่าผู้พูดมาจากประเทศ (โปรดเลือกเพียง 1 คำตอบ)					

- | | | | |
|---|-------------------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> สหรัฐอเมริกา | <input type="checkbox"/> ฟิลิปปินส์ | <input type="checkbox"/> เกาหลี | <input type="checkbox"/> เมียนมาร์ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> อังกฤษ | <input type="checkbox"/> สิงคโปร์ | <input type="checkbox"/> จีน | <input type="checkbox"/> ไทย |
| <input type="checkbox"/> ออสเตรเลีย | <input type="checkbox"/> อินเดีย | <input type="checkbox"/> ญี่ปุ่น | <input type="checkbox"/> เวียดนาม |
| <input type="checkbox"/> อื่น ๆ (โปรดระบุ): _____ | | | |



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Appendix K: Validation form of attitudinal questionnaire on English accented speech

Instructions: Please give your comment by putting (✓) in the box.

a) Content validation

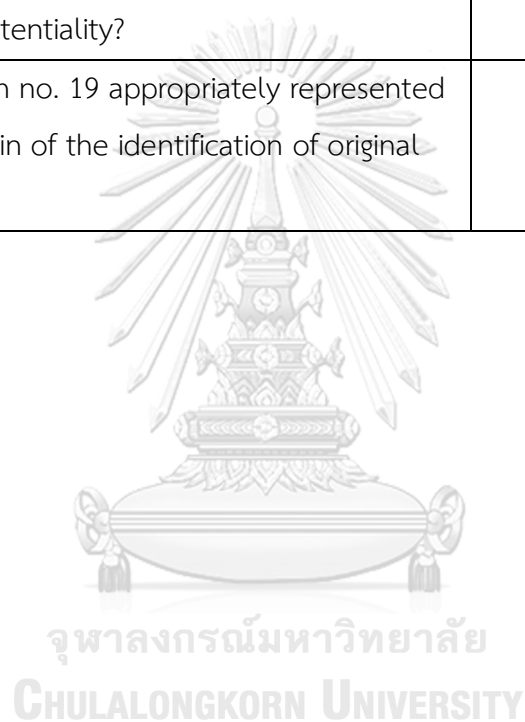
Questions	Yes	Not sure	No	Comment
1. Does the questionnaire reflect its objective?				
2. Are the directions of the questionnaire clear?				
3. Is the format (Likert scale) of the questionnaire appropriate?				
4. Is the rating scale clearly defined?				
5. Are the statements in the questionnaire comprehensible?				
6. Is the font size of the text appropriate?				
7. Is the number of attitudinal items appropriate?				

b) Construct validation

Questions	Yes	Not sure	No	Comment
1. Is the item no. 1 (intelligent) appropriately represented on the personness trait?				
2. Is the item no. 2 (educated) appropriately represented on the personness trait?				
3. Is the item no. 3 (elegant) appropriately represented on the personness trait?				
4. Is the item no. 4 (reliable) appropriately represented on the personness trait?				

5. Is the item no. 5 (friendly) appropriately represented on the personness trait?				
6. Is the item no. 6 (sincere) represent appropriately the personness trait?				
7. Is the item no. 7(easy to understand) appropriately represented on the trait of communicability?				
8. Is the item no. 8 (fluent) appropriately represented on the trait of communicability?				
9. Is the item no. 9 (clear) appropriately represented on the trait of communicability?				
10. Is the item no. 10 (proper intonation) appropriately represented on the trait of communicability?				
11. Is the item no. 11 (pleasant to listen to) appropriately represented on the trait of communicability?				
12. Is the item no. 12 (aspired as a model) appropriately represented on the trait of communicability?				
13. Is the item no. 13 (spoken English as the first language) appropriately represented under the trait of communicability?				
14. Is the item no. 14 (anxiety) appropriately represented on the trait of testing potentiality?				
15. Is the item no. 15 (familiarity) appropriately represented on the trait of testing potentiality?				

16. Is the item no. 16 (advantage) appropriately represented on the trait of testing potentiality?				
17. Is the item no. 17 (testing inclusion) appropriately represented on the trait of testing potentiality?				
18. Is the item no. 18 (acceptability) appropriately represented on the trait of testing potentiality?				
19. Is the item no. 19 appropriately represented the domain of the identification of original country?				



Appendix L: Consent Form

Description of the research:

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Pornchanok Sukpan, a lecture of Dhurakij Pundit University relating to the use of test-taking strategies to achieve the purpose of a listening test and to explore the attitude toward a variety of English accented speech.

This research can help test designers and teachers carefully select the appropriate inputs, texts, and response alternatives of the test relevant to the construct of the listening test in order to enhance the interpretation of learners' actual listening performance in real life situations.

Description of your participation:

Please read and complete this form carefully. Please tick (✓) in the appropriate responses and sign and date the declaration at the end.

Content	Yes	No
1. I have had the research satisfactorily explained to me in verbal and / or written form by the researcher.		
2. I understand that the research will involve three main instruments: a listening test, a questionnaire and an interview. It will take about 45 minutes for taking a test, about 30 minutes to fill in the questionnaire and about 1 hour to be interviewed together with being audiotaped.		
3. I understand that I may withdraw from this study at any time without having to give an explanation. This will not affect my future care or treatment.		
4. I understand that all information about me will be treated in strict confidence.		
5. I understand that any audiotape material of me will be used solely for research purposes and will be destroyed after the completion of your research.		

I freely give my consent to participate in this research study and receive a copy of this form for my own information. If I do not understand anything and would like more information, I will ask or contact Pornchanok personally at 081 622 6443.

Signature:

Date:



Appendix M: Samples of Analyzing Assumptions of Inferential statistics

Before performing a one-way repeated measures ANOVA, five assumptions of one-way repeated measures ANOVA must be examined.

Assumption 1: The dependent variable

In the study, the dependent variable is the listening comprehension mean scores affected by English-accented speeches.

Assumption 2: The independent variable

In the study, there are four categorical groups comprising of American English, Indian English, Chinese English, and Thai English.

Assumption 3: The normal distribution

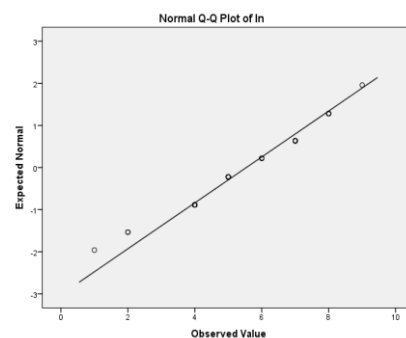
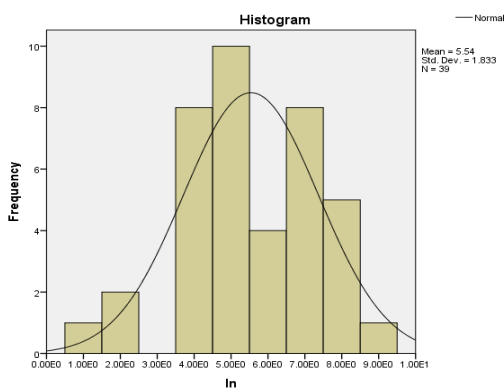
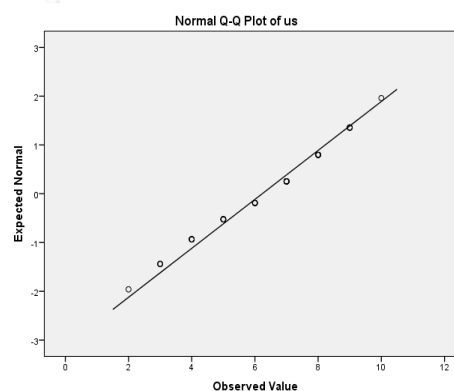
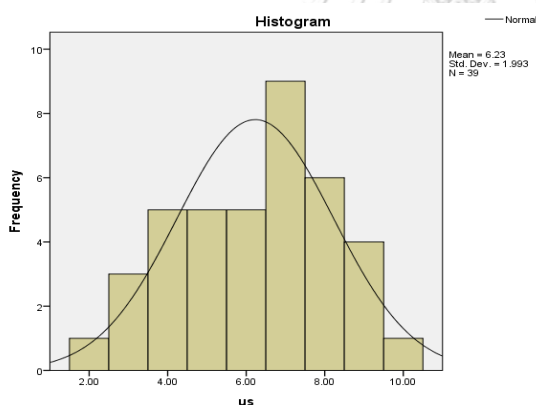
Regarding Table 1, the dependent variables of the study appear to be normally distributed because the significant level is greater than .05 with exception that the score on Chinese English was violated. Under this case, the histogram in the shape of bell curve and the normal probability (Q-Q) plot were be observed as another evidence to make decision whether the data was qualified to analyze with one way ANOVA with repeated measures. Figure 1 revealed that all of the four sets of listening comprehension scores affected by English-accented speeches were in the bell curve in the high EFL achievers. For the low EFL achievers, Table 1 revealed that all of four sets of listening comprehension scores were normally distributed because the p-value is greater than .05. Moreover, all of four score sets were in the bell shape and plotted in straight line regarding Figure 2.

Table 1

Distribution of normality on Shapiro-Wilk

English accented speech	EFL achievers	statistic	df	Sig.
American	High	.960	39	.176
	Low	.955	41	.107
Indian	High	.946	39	.059
	Low	.947	41	.053
Chinese	High	.931	39	.019*
	Low	.960	41	.157
Thai	High	.948	39	.073
	Low	.964	41	.225

Notes. *p < .05



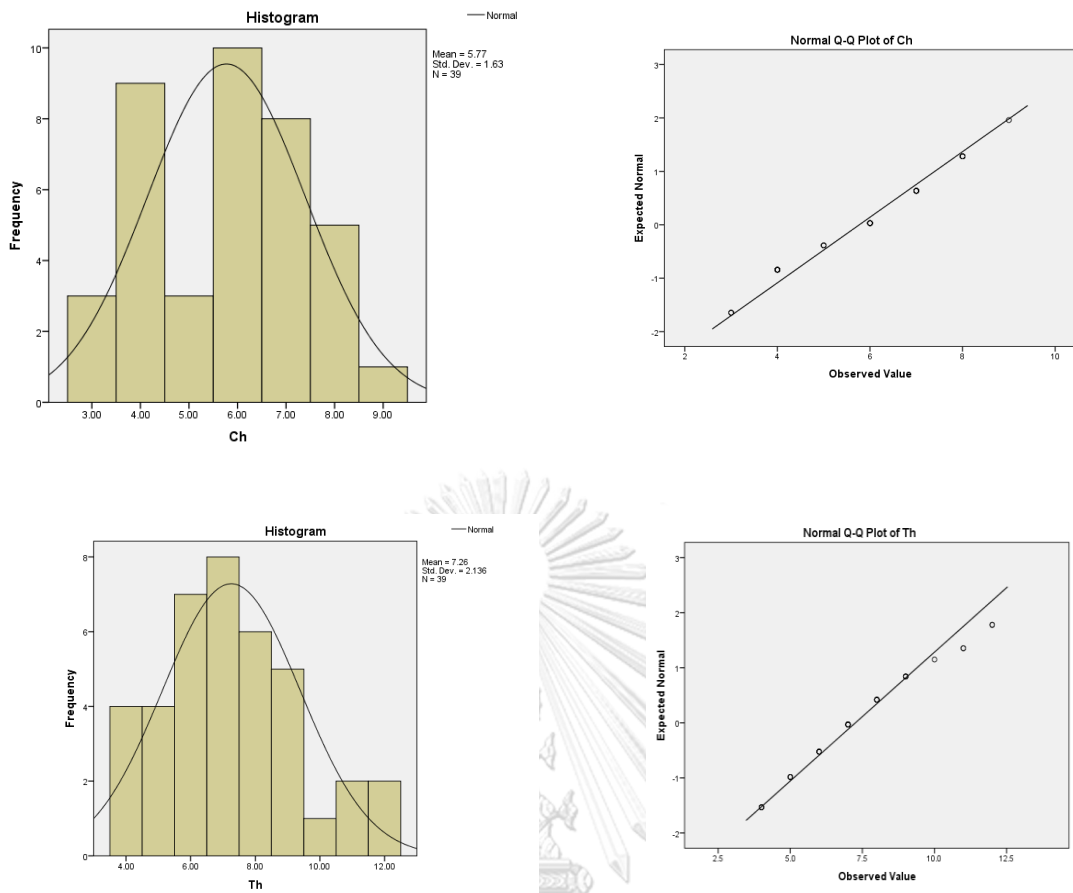
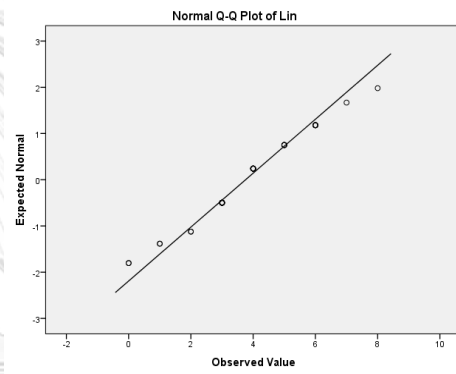
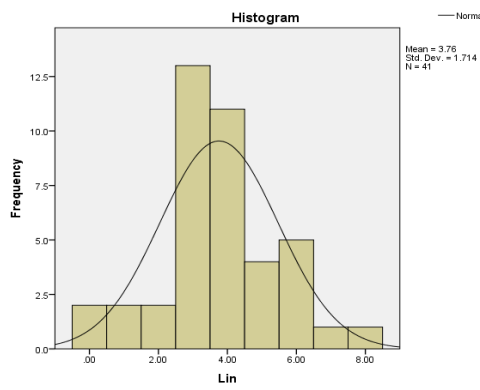
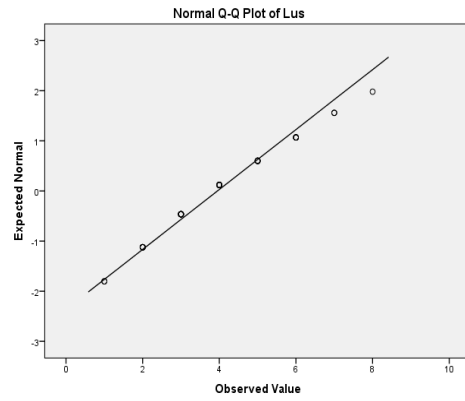
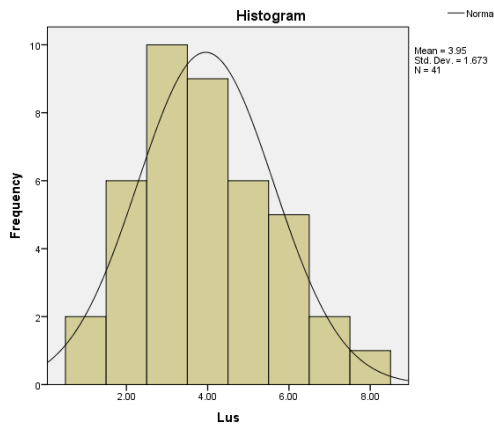
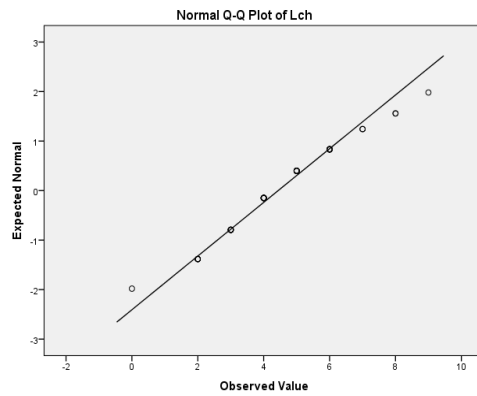
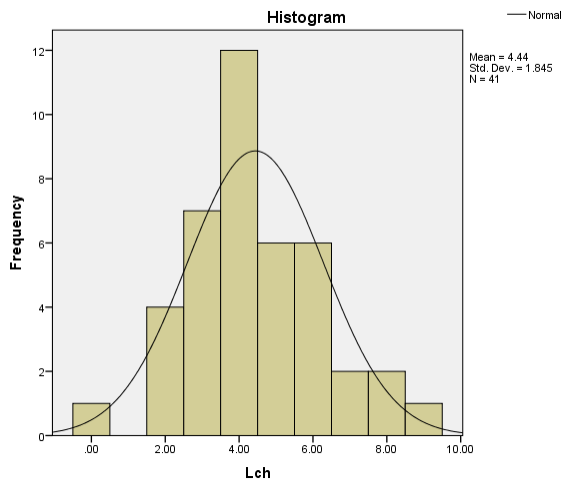


Figure 1 Normal distribution of listening comprehension scores affected by four English accented speeches by the high EFL achievers



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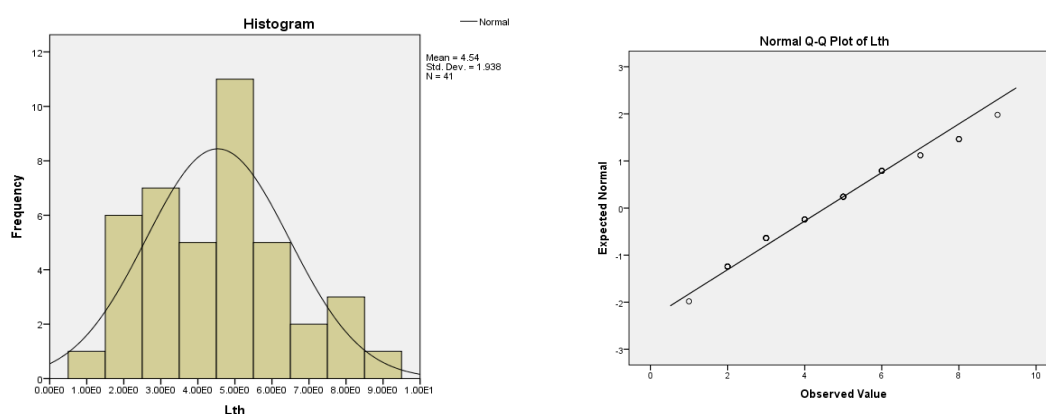


Figure 2 Normal distribution of listening comprehension scores affected by four English accented speeches by the high EFL achievers

Assumption 4: The variances of the differences

Table 2 showed that the assumption of Mauchly's Test of Sphericity was met, $\chi^2(5) = 2.96$, $p = .71$ for the high EFL achievers and $\chi^2(5) = 3.14$, $p = .68$ for the low EFL achievers. That means the relationship between the different pairs of the dependent variables is similar.

Table 2 Mauchly's Test of Sphericity on the effect of English accented speeches on listening comprehension

Within subjects effect	EFL level	Mauchly's W	Approx. chi square	df	Sig.	Epsilon		
						Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower bound
English-accented speeches	High	.92	2.96	5	.71	.95	1.00	.33
	Low	.92	3.14	5	.68	.95	1.00	.33

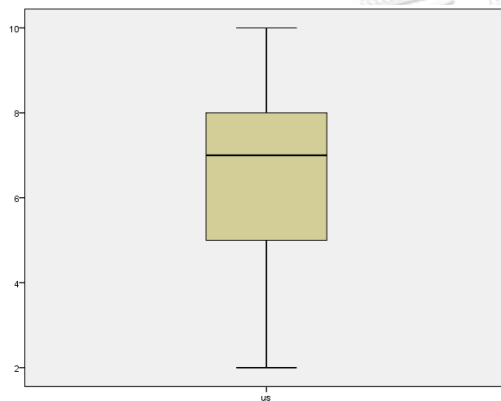
Notes. * $p < .05$

Assumption 5: Absence of outlier

Figure 3 showed that regarding the boxplot, all sets of dependent variable data were in the good quality because no any presence of outlier biased the results and potentially led to incorrect conclusions.

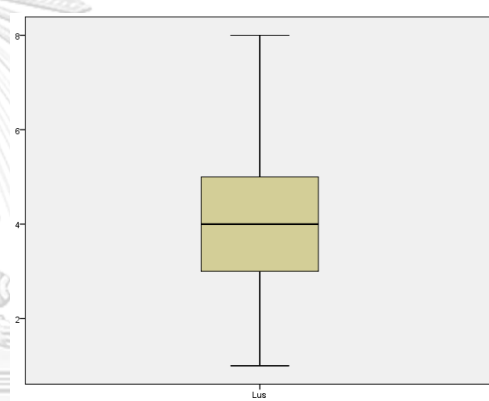
High EFL achievers

Mean scores affected by American English

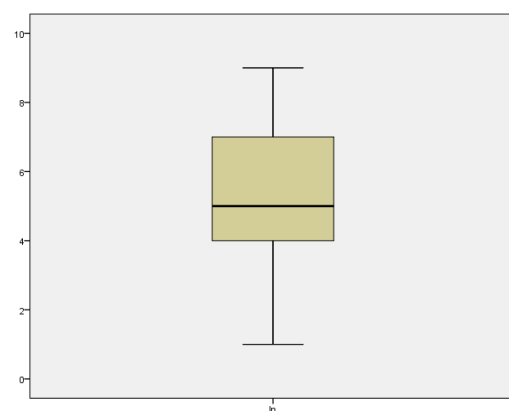


Low EFL achievers

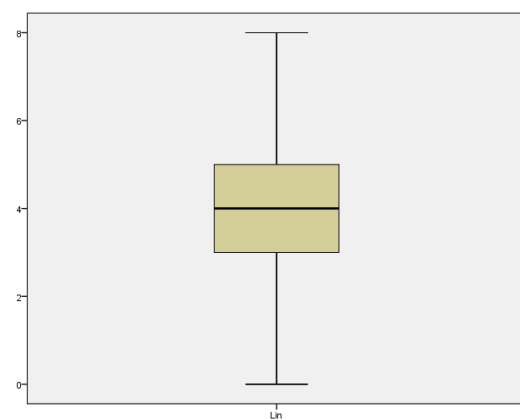
Mean scores affected by American English



Mean scores affected by Indian English

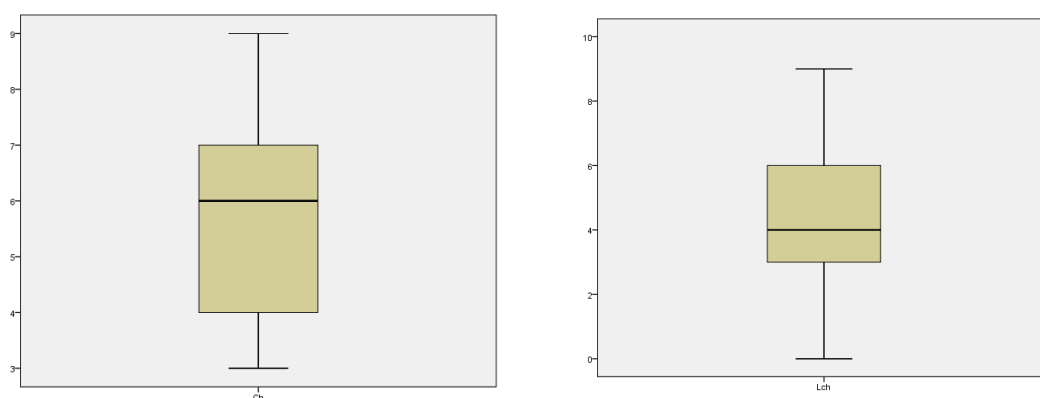


Mean scores affected by Indian English



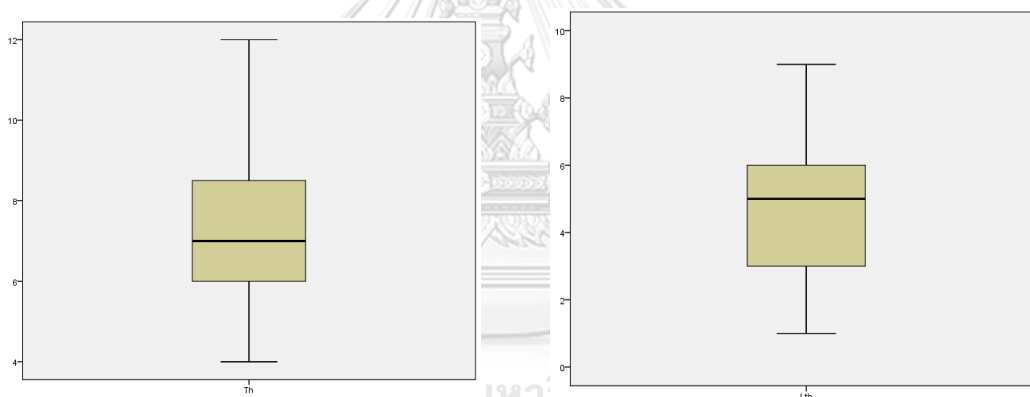
Mean scores affected by Chinese English

Mean scores affected by Chinese English



Mean scores affected by Thai English

Mean scores affected by Thai English



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Figure 3 Boxplot of listening comprehension scores affected by four English accented speeches by the high and low EFL achievers

Appendix N: Descriptive statistic on test-taking strategies

Descriptive statistic on test-taking strategies used for listening comprehension by high and low EFL Thai achievers

No	Test taking strategies	High EFL		Low EFL	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1	Before taking the test, I try to relax myself, breathe deeply, and mediate or clear my mind.	3.44	1.33	3.42	0.99
2	Before taking the test, I scan all question items together with their options.	3.23	1.18	3.15	0.96
3	Before starting each spoken text, I carefully read and memorize all of its question items.	3.18	1.30	2.95	0.80
4	I try to keep listening a whole spoken text even though I found it difficult.	3.48	1.21	3.05	0.80
5	I try to listen to every word to make more understanding of the spoken text.	3.56	1.10	3.34	0.76
6	I listen to the gist to understand what the text is about	4.08	1.04	3.44	0.90
7	I listen to key words of each spoken text.	3.82	0.91	3.88	0.84
8	I try to infer the indirect information of the spoken text for listening comprehension.	3.77	1.18	3.17	0.70
9	I use known words to guess the unknown words in the spoken text.	3.59	0.88	3.17	0.77
10	I use my knowledge of the lesson to help me understand the spoken text	3.26	1.16	3.22	0.79
11	I use my experience and prior knowledge to help me understand the spoken text.	3.25	0.99	2.98	0.88

12	I use my familiarity on English accented speeches to help me understand the spoken text.	3.33	1.08	3.07	0.82
13	I translate what I am listening to into Thai.	3.51	1.14	3.27	0.92
14	I translate every words in the spoken text into Thai.	3.62	1.09	3.20	0.98
15	I jot down key ideas or words into the test booklet as I listen.	3.03	1.46	3.02	1.06
16	I try to summarize the spoken text	3.85	1.09	3.26	0.71
17	I try to gather words heard from the spoken text to help me understand the text.	4.08	1.10	3.88	1.08
18	I periodically evaluate myself how well I understand the listening text.	3.08	0.98	3.00	0.77
19	After listening, I asked myself if I am satisfied with my listening comprehension.	2.79	1.06	2.93	0.68
20	I choose the best option from my comprehension of the overall text.	4.13	.97	3.93	0.91
21	I choose the best option by reordering each spoken text.	3.77	1.13	3.17	0.88
22	I choose the best option by recalling what I have heard from the spoken text.	3.56	1.07	3.12	0.98
23	I choose the best option from my note-taking.	3.26	1.23	3.00	0.87
24	I choose the best option from the hints or clues appearing in the spoken text.	3.49	1.25	3.20	0.87
25	I choose the best option from reconsidering the relationship of	3.90	.88	3.32	0.88

	grammatical structure between the question item and its answer options.				
26	I choose the best option from reconsidering the relationship of the meaning between the question item and its answer options.	3.84	.90	3.49	0.87
27	I eliminate other options unheard from the spoken text.	3.62	1.14	3.02	0.91
28	I eliminate other options that I cannot translate into Thai.	3.74	1.11	3.00	0.89
29	I choose the best option based on prior knowledge.	3.87	.95	3.07	0.61
30	I choose the best option based on the knowledge of the lesson.	3.79	.98	3.10	0.80
31	I choose the best option whose words are repeated from or similar to the spoken text.	3.49	.97	3.07	0.69
32	I choose the best option based on the information from other previous items.	3.64	.96	3.54	0.86
33	I choose the best option even though I do not understand it.	3.26	1.19	2.98	0.88

VITA

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